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ABSTRACT

The reports contained in this collection are the results of separate working committees of the second National Defense Education Act Foreign Language Leadership Institute held at Central Washington State College during a seven- week period in 1967. Thirteen reports include: (1) "Job Description for Department Chairmen, Coordinators, and Supervisors," (2) "Making Foreign Language Instruction Meaningful to the Low-Average and Below Average Pupil," (3) "Recent Trends in Foreign Language Teaching Techniques and Materials," (4) "Foreign Language Program Evaluation Based on a Definition of Objectives," (5) "Designing and Using Language Laboratories and Other AV Aids," (6) "Guidelines for the Development of Long-Sequence Programs," (7) "Organization for Communication," (8) "Guidelines for Developing In-Service Programs," (9) "Flexible Scheduling," (10) "The Contributions of the Linguists to the Teaching of Foreign Languages," (11) "The Leadership Committee: Final Report 1967," (12) "The Culture Committee: Final Report Summer 1967," and (13) "Testing and Certification: Paquette Committee Report." (RL)

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NDEA FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, 1967
CENTRAL WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE
Ellensburg, Washington

Lester W. McKim, Director

"WORKING COMMITTEE REPORTS"

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INTRODUCTION

The reports in this collection are the product of the major committees at the second NDEA FL Leadership Institute held at CWSC, June 26 through August 11, 1967. The participants represented twenty-one states and one foreign country. Among the 45 participants were fourteen department chairmen, five supervisors of more than one school within a city system, twenty-five city supervisors, and one state supervisor. French, German, and Spanish were well represented by participants; there was also substantial representation of Russian. The group included many individuals with strong academic preparation; all participants brought to the Institute knowledge gained from a wealth of practical teaching and supervisory experience. Institute participants were selected from more than 250 formal applicants.

The composition of the Institute group was such that any product of their combined efforts should constitute a good sampling of professional thinking nationally. The Institute was conducted in the form of a seminar, without any formal classes. The writing of these reports constituted the major responsibility for all participants during the seven weeks of the Institute.

Each of these reports directly represents the combined efforts of the participants working on the committee concerned. Indirectly, all reflect the thinking of the entire Institute group. In each case, at least one oral committee presentation was made to the Institute group, followed by a discussion period. These oral reports served as a basis for the first written report distributed in dittoed form for comments by all participants and staff members. The dittoed copies with comments were then collected and considered by the committee which made its final editing and passed the report on to the secretarial staff for typing.

The first eight reports presented here were prepared by participant committees working independently of the staff, though staff members were available for consultation. The participant committees had from three to eight members; each participant worked on the topic of his greatest professional concern. The selection of topics was determined by the expression of participant concern. Committees investigated the areas covered by their topics, consulting staff members, holding meetings, reading materials from the Institute Materials Centers, and conducting surveys which enlisted the cooperation of all Institute participants. These surveys proved to be an especially rich source of information.

The second part of this publication deals with topics covered by five visiting lecturers. Each report was prepared by a committee of nine participants and a staff member acting as consultant. The committees followed in the main the same procedure as the participant committees, with one outstanding difference. For each topic, a visiting lecturer spent two days at the Institute and gave a series of three formal presentations plus spending a great deal of time in conference with individuals and small groups, especially the lecturer committee. In order to get the best Institute thinking on presentations by visiting lecturers, each lecture was followed by small group discussions. Two committee members were in charge of each small group discussion. Information gathered from those periods was transmitted to the lecturer for his consideration and further clarification.

It should be stated that these thirteen reports are not intended to deal with all important topics relative to foreign language instruction. They are rather a survey of selected areas needing study by FL supervisors. Committees attempted to prepare the reports as clearly as possible as a basis for action and implementation of recommendations rather than for formal publication. However, materials may be reproduced provided that adequate reference is made to the source. Their claim to interest is not as a final authority but as the best present perception by an eminently qualified group of FL leaders.

A directory of participants and staff members is included for the convenience of anyone who may wish to correspond with any member of the committees. The names of those involved in the preparation of each report are included on its title page.

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JOB DESCRIPTION FOR DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN, COORDINATORS, AND SUPERVISORS

The increase in the general school enrollment and a growing interest in the study of foreign languages have brought with them an urgent need for leadership in the language departments of our schools and school systems. Recognition by administrators of this need for articulation in the foreign language area has resulted in a rapid proliferation of such positions without a commonality of titles or responsibilities. In some cases language personnel have been assigned to these positions without any pre-determined limits of authority or lists of duties. In others, these duties are vague or at variance with those established in neighboring school districts. It is evident that there is a need to explore the variety of tasks assumed by foreign language supervisors and the differences in compensation and from these to formulate suitable job descriptions and an equitable remuneration formula. These could then be adapted to the local situation as expressed by the 1966 NDEA Foreign Language Leadership Institute in the following recommendation:

> Foreign language supervisors or department chairmen should have a written job description developed at the local level. This job description should be approved by the local school authorities and be incorporated into the official policies and procedures of the Board of Education.

If a foreign language department is to function efficiently and the quality of the instruction is to remain high, there is need for specialized supervision which embraces the responsibilities and problems that relate specifically to language teaching. The development and improvement of curriculum; the selection, in-service training and evaluation of teachers; the determing of needs in the area of materials and equipment and budgeting for them; are all areas requiring the services of a foreign language-trained leader at the local level.

In 1957, the year of Sputnik, the national government became interested in improving the quality of education. Under the NDEA Act of 1958 funds were made available for new materials of instruction and the retraining of teachers. Supervisors were added and given the function of improving the program.

If supervision has as its function the seeking of improvement of curriculum and instruction, it will continue to grow in importance and in the number of personnel involved.

School systems have grown larger, and it is being recognized that more specialized assistance is needed. In the years ahead, the number of people engaged in the supervisory function will increase. The national government and most local school systems want a better educational program. More and more resource personnel will be supplied to insure improvement and to meet increasing demands for secondary consultants, special-subject supervisors and directors of secondary education.

Supervision is one of the essential functions in the operation of schools, if they are to provide effective educational programs. Rapidly changing demands being made upon the public schools for increasing effectiveness have given supervision a unique position of importance in recent years. Second only to the teaching function itself in importance, supervision is responsible for facilitating educational change and giving it direction.

The contemporary comprehensive high school involves many more administrative and supervisory duties and responsibilities than a principal or even a principal and an administrative assistant can take care of efficiently. As long ago as October, 1965, Landon Shelton, vice principal of High Point Senior High, Beltsville, Maryland,stated in an article, "Supervision of Teachers," published in the journal of the NASSP:

> It is apparent that all teachers need supervision. How often do we hear an administrator say, "I'd like to spend more time in the classroom, but I just can't find the time." The basic problem is that the administrator is so busy that his teacher supervision responsibility does not come to his attention.

In the same vein, Roy A. Edelfelt, Associate Secretary of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the NEA, wrote:

> Schools will never be any better than the teachers who man them. One way to get better teachers is to make sure the new crop each year gets sufficient time, help, and encouragement so each new teacher has a chance to develop his own teaching style to a high level of perfection. This goal is a primary obligation for supervisors.

If the duties of the principal and the vice-principal are so multifarious and so pressing that he "just can't find the time" for professional supervisory obligations, are these obligations to be by-passed or, if not, who is to assume them? Administration has three choices:

1. To employ an additional "line" supervisor of all areas in the curriculum, to assist with the instructional program, coordination, curriculum development, budgeting, etc.

2. To delegate these specialized responsibilites to master teachers in the respective areas of the curriculum, designating them as department chairmen, and recompensing them in terms of released time to do the job and monetary compensation for their specialized services.
3. To impose these duties and responsibilites on area teachers wih a minimum of released time (usually one period) and no salary increment or a minimum salary increment and no released time.

Because of the nature of the responsibilities and obligations of an area supervisor, it would seem that choices one and three are the least desirable, number one because the "line" administrator does not have the kind of specialized know-how that a supervisor should have, and number three because the nominal department chairman would not have the time to function efficiently.

In this report we shall determine the key areas of responsibility and the specific tasks that should be included in job descriptions for three types of leaders: chairman, coordinator, and supervisor. In our context, these titles which are used interchangeably in the field are employed as follows:

> Chairman: The person who holds the position of leadership in the foreign language department of one building and is not subordinate to another foreign language leader. He also teaches.
>
> Coordinator: The person who holds the position of leadership in the foreign language department of a school system which emcompasses more than one building and where there are no subordinate leaders in the individual buildings. He also teaches.
>
> Supervisor: The person who holds the position of leadership in the foreign language department of a school system which encompasses more than one building and where there are subordinate leaders in the individual buildings. He may or may not teach.

We shall also explore the area of remuneration, both in money and in released time, and shall present our proposal for guidelines which will provide a salary that is appropriate to the position and attractive to high calibre leadership personnel.

We do not have sufficient data to make generalizations. What data we have is based upon information elicited from the 45 participants of the CWSC NDEA Foreign Language Leadership Institute of 1967, representing 21 states and an American school in Brazil. There are 14 high school department chairman; 5 are responsible for more than one school in a city, but not for all schools with foreign language programs; 21 are responsible for all city schools with foreign language programs; 4 are responsible for programs in more than one city; and one is a coordinator of student teachers.

Whereas each of the participants is designated as a department chairman, coordinator, or supervisor, the survey reveals that there is little uniformity in definition of responsibilities and even less in the formulation of compensation in terms of released time and monetary remuneration. In some cases, there are not even written job descriptions. Therefore, let us summarize the needs for, and the purposes and composition of job descriptions.

I. Need for a job description: The following reasons may be given as justification for the need for a job description for department chairmen, supervisors, consultants and other personnel in school administration:

   1. Fast growth of school systems.
   2. Increasing complexity of organizational structure.
   3. Demands by staff members, department chairmen in particular, for significant wage increases.
   4. Demands by department chairmen for released time from teaching to perform their departmental duties.
   5. Demands by professional staff members to participate in professional negotiations.
   6. Need for effective communications between teachers and administration.

II. Purpose of a job description: The following are some of the more salient purposes of a job description:

   1. To identify duties, responsibilities, rights, privileges, lines of communication and scope of authority.
   2. To establish guidelines for the implementation of policy and performance of specific functions according to established procedures.
   3. To prevent duplication of effort and function in order to increase efficiency of performance.
   4. To provide a means for evaluation of performance and to identify areas of weakness in order to initiate improvements.

III. Composition of a job description: A good and complete job description will contain the following items:

   1. Title of the job or position.
   2. Qualifications required for the position.
      a. Educational preparation
      b. Work experience and background
   3. Detailed listing of all specific duties and responsibilities.
   4. Listing of rights and privileges, if not detailed elsewhere in the administrative policy.
   5. Identification of scope of authority.
      a. To whom responsible--superiors
      b. For whom responsible--subordinates, colleagues, supporting staff
   6. Lines of communication--medium to use (reports to superiors, memos to subordinates) and scope of circulation.

7. Dollar value--the price tag.

IV. Conclusion: A complete job description is essential to the well-being of both the organization and the employee. They both will know what is expected and the benefits accruing to each. They both will have a choice: the one whether or not to extend an offer of a position, the other to accept or reject it.

SUGGESTED JOB DESCRIPTION FOR A FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN

Department chairmen are teachers who have assumed some administrative responsibilities in one building. They should devote adequate time to the supervision and direction of the instructional program in their areas.

The department chairman is recommended by the principal for appointment on a yearly basis. He is directly responsible to the principal and is delegated the necessary authority to perform his duties within the curricular areas as follows:

Instructional program

1. Development, supervision and evaluation of the instructional program of the curricular area.
2. Evaluation of teachers both probationary and permanent within the curricular area by regular classroom visitation and/or observation.
3. Orientation and assistance to teachers needing help, especially those new to the school district.
4. In-service training of area staff, and supervision and assignment of practice teachers.
5. Supervision and approval of the audio-visual program for the curricular area.
6. Participation, insofar as possible, in the selection and assignment of teachers within the curricular area.
7. Direct all awards and contests within the curricular area.
8. Require teachers to formulate lesson plans and up-to-date seating charts for substitute teachers.
9. Promote professional growth of staff.

Coordination

1. Work with the principal and other area chairmen to insure coordination of activities among curricular areas.
2. Secure coordination among curricular area activities, staff, and facilities.
3. Maintain liaison between administration and instructional staff.

Planning

1. Participation in research and planning for curriculum development, textbook selection, and class scheduling.

2. Leadership of regular departmental staff sessions; participation in disciplinary and district conferences.
3. Responsibility for recommendations to counselors concerning the welfare of students.
4. Conduct at least monthly departmental meetings for coordination and planning of curriculum development within curricular area.

Budgeting

1. Preparation of the curricular area budget requests to be submitted to the principal.
2. Primary approval of purchase orders, requisitions, and work orders originating within the curricular area.
3. Supervise the ordering, storing, and distributing of all curricular area supplies.

Reporting and communication to area staff

1. Keep the principal informed of area operation.
2. Keep the area teachers informed of building and district policies and administrative policy.
3. Be responsible for keeping a departmental inventory of supplies and equipment.

SUGGESTED JOB DESCRIPTION FOR A FOREIGN LANGUAGE COORDINATOR

The foreign language coordinator shall be in charge of the foreign language program in the buildings of the school system. He shall be directly responsible to the superintendent of schools in the execution of his assigned duties. When working in schools, he shall be subject to the policies that pertain to the individual school. As each principal is the educational leader in his school, cooperation between principals and coordinator is essential to the effectiveness of articulation of the program.

The qualifications of the foreign language coordinator are as follows:

1. A Master's Degree or equivalent in foreign language study.
2. Evidence of several years of successful teaching experience.
3. Satisfaction of state requirements for supervisors.

The major duties and responsibilities of the foreign language coordinator are the following:

Personnel and staff

1. Assist principals in interviewing and hiring teachers.
2. Observe and evaluate teachers.
3. Assist in the growth of beginning and non-tenure teachers through orientation, review of lesson plans, conferences and observation reports.
4. Initiate in-service training of teachers.
5. Orient and assist substitute teachers.

Curriculum and instruction

1. Be responsible for the total language program from grade 6 through grade 12.
2. Assist the teachers in the improvement of instruction.
3. Select instructional materials with the aid of the teachers involved.
4. Prepare the annual language department budget for each school.
5. Take part in the scheduling process by determining the department's class numbers and by arranging teacher assignments.
6. Keep teachers informed of developments in the language field and provide professional reading material.
7. Be aware of available government resources.

Miscellaneous

1. Keep abreast of happenings in the language field.
2. Explain your department to the public and publicize its achievements.
3. Prepare special reports for the administration and other interested groups.
4. Attend principals' and superintendents' supervisory meetings.
5. Attend local, state and national professional meetings.
6. Hold regular department meetings and issue bulletins.
7. Coordinate the language laboratories.
8. Teach not more than two classes.
9. Be available for consultation with principals on matters relating to the foreign language program.
10. Perform other assignments as they arise.

The board of education and the administration of a school system should recognize that all of the above items require time in order to provide a climate of improvement and direction to the foreign language program. Therefore, additional compensation, released time from regular classroom instruction, and authority must be granted to the foreign language coordinator to insure the successful operation of a foreign language department within the school system.

SUGGESTED JOB DESCRIPTION FOR A FOREIGN LANGUAGE SUPERVISOR

Qualifications

1. Educational preparation: A Master's Degree or equivalent in foreign language study and substantial graduate level work in professional education.
2. Experience: Evidence of several years of successful classroom teaching experience in the secondary school level. If the school district has a FLES program, the supervisor should have either work experience in the elementary school level, or

graduate courses which will provide adequate background.

3. Satisfaction of state requirements for supervision.

Special provisions for the position of supervisor

Depending upon the size of the school district, the supervisor shall either devote his full time to the duties of supervisor, or shall teach part time.

Duties of the foreign language supervisor

The duties and responsibilities of the foreign language supervisor shall be:

1. To assist the professional staff in the planning of curriculum.
2. To assist the principal and the department chairmen in the evaluation of program and staff.
3. To assist the principal and the department chairmen in the interviewing of prospective staff members.
4. To assist individual teachers in procurement of new teaching materials and teaching aids.
5. To assist teachers in the proper use of teaching aids and materials.
6. To assist in the planning of in-service programs.
7. To aid all the schools in the proper articulation of the language program from one level to another and from one school to another.
8. To coordinate the instructional program in all the schools by meeting with the department chairmen who will aid in the planning of the program.
9. To assist in the testing program and in the selection of testing materials.
10. To keep abreast of all current trends in methods and materials and to keep teachers informed of the latest sources of information and the latest developments in teaching materials.
11. To perform such other duties as his immediate superior may request.

JOB DESCRIPTION SURVEY

1. This survey was carried out with 45 participants and 3 instructors at the NDEA Foreign Language Leadership Institute, 1967. Replies were divided into three categories:

Category A: (29 replies) includes those who work within a small or local framework, i.e. a single building, a secondary school and its feeder schools, a small group of schools;

Category B: (17 replies) includes those who work within the larger framework of the city, county, district, or state system;

Category C: covers two respondents, one a TV consultant and the other a teacher working uniquely with university intern teachers.

2. Participants were asked to note number of classes they teach in one of three groupings: no classes, 1 or 2 classes, 3 to 5 classes:

Category A	Category B	Category C
1 teaches no classes	8 teach no classes	1 teaches no classes
13 teach 1 or 2 classes	4 teach 1 or 2 classes	
17 teach 3 to 5 classes	5 teach 3 to 5 classes	1 teaches 3 to 5 classes

3. Participants were asked to read a group of 20 job responsibilities, checking those which describe jobs they presently do (ranked in order of number of times noted by the respondents; number at left denotes the number of checks):

47 1. Dissemination of information to those you supervise, i.e. bulletins, newsletters, professional literature, catalogues, etc.
43 2. Responsibility for development of courses of study, course descriptions, language instruction goals.
42 3. Liaison with administrative personnel concerned with program articulation.
42 3. Conduct regularly scheduled meetings of personnel under your supervision.
41 4. Preparation of annual budget; responsibility for requisitions for textbooks and teaching materials, equipment, and supplies.
41 4. General curriculum development and planning.
40 5. Seeking to promote effective working relationships among classroom teachers, between them and the administration.
39 6. Explanation of the FL program to public and civic groups.
38 7. Encourage fulfillment of professional improvement obligations, including supervision of in-service training programs.
37 8. Planning for physical plant, facilities, including language laboratories.
36 9. Gathering material pertinent to research projects or special reports requested by district, county, or state authorities.
36 9. Observations and evaluation of all teachers under your supervision.
35 10. Assisting with selection of new teachers, including interviewing of candidates.

34 11. Regular periodic observations of new teachers which entail conferences and written evaluation.
33 12. Preparation of periodic report on problems and activities under your supervision.
29 13. Teacher scheduling or other scheduling activities.
26 14. Selection and administration of standardized aptitude and achievement tests.
19 15. Work with the other subject matter areas for cross-discipline planning.

4. What amount of released time are you given for supervisory duties?

The amount of released time varies from 0% (three instances) to 87½% of time (100% released time but supervisors concerned elect to teach one class). The median is 50% released time and the average is 43.3%.

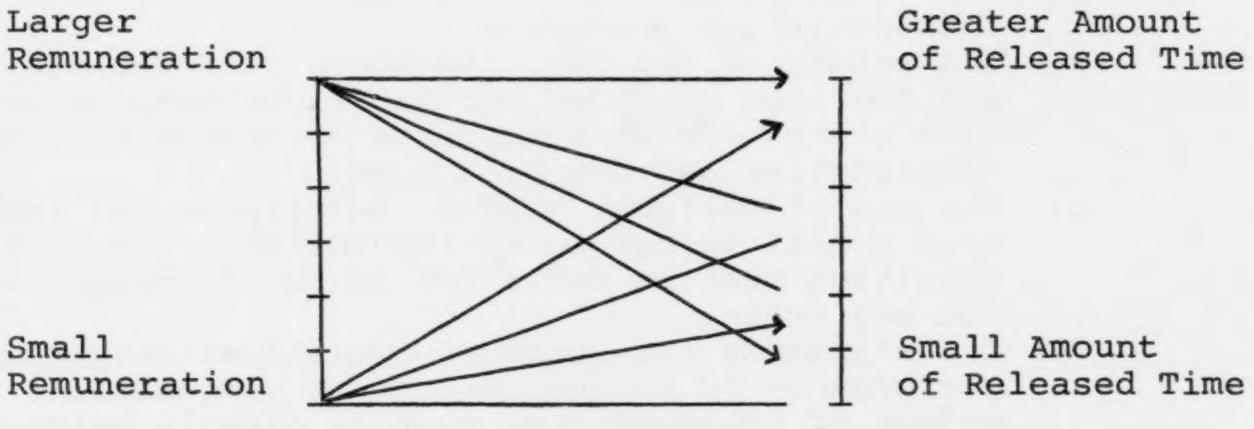
5. Patterns of released time and remuneration:

Three supervisors have released time (33.3%, 12%, 40-60%) but receive no remuneration.

Two supervisors receive remuneration but no released time. In both cases the remuneration is a token sum, $100 and $70.

Twenty-eight supervisors receive both released time and remuneration. There is great variation in basis of allowance of time and money and variety of combination from 1/6 release time (plus 1/2 days as needed) to full released time (the three persons elect to teach one class) and from $240 to $2000. The middle range of released time is about 33.3% to 75% and the middle range of remuneration is $300 to $800. This great variation can be seen in the diagram below:

DIAGRAM OF CURRENT REMUNERATION-RELEASED TIME PATTERNS


Larger Remuneration
Greater Amount of Released Time
Small Remuneration
Small Amount of Released Time

RECOMMENDATIONS

The survey conducted among the 1967 FL Leadership Institute participants by the committee on job descriptions for supervisors and department chairmen shows a wide variety of actual practices both with regard to duties and responsibilities and to remuneration and released time.

Though it is recognized by this committee that the local needs of each school district are the primary consideration in the determination of such practices, it is nevertheless essential that certain guidelines be established to serve at least as a minimum standard. It is therefore recommended by this committee that (1) detailed job descriptions become more universal in actual practice in order to identify specifically the real nature of the work to be done, (2) that administrative recognition be given to the fact that both released time and compensation above basic salaries are a prerequisite to good administrative practice. If an efficient job is to be done, time must be provided in which to do it. Basic to the efficient performance of these specialized duties is the need for adequate remuneration.

Administrative and supervisory positions are created when a need arises for them. The selection of personnel to fill these positions is predicated on the fact that those selected possess certain skills, knowledge, experience and other desirable qualifications that others may not possess. This alone should be reason enough for the establishment of a pay differential, for it is accepted in our society that those in positions of authority are compensated for their qualifications and the willingness to accept responsibility. If a department chairman or supervisor is primarily a classroom teacher and is only secondarily a department chairman, he must be given the released time from classroom assignments in order to perform well the duties of department chairman. Otherwise, all administrative and supervisory duties will at best be performed with a minimum of effort and efficiency.

The following items are presented as guidelines in local school districts:

1. Job descriptions should become part of standard administrative procedure.
2. The nature of the job, the scope of responsibilities and the time required for their performance are factors which must be considered in determining both compensation and released time.
3. The qualifications, skills, experience and leadership qualities are to be recognized, and such recognition must be reflected in the differential of the pay scale.
4. The standards for required qualifications, expected performance of duties, extent of compensation and extent of released time must be clearly defined according to just and professional considerations.

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MAKING FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION MEANINGFUL TO THE LOW-AVERAGE AND BELOW-AVERAGE PUPIL

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MAKING FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION
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INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades foreign language teachers have experienced many changes: dramatic advances in linguistic science, new techniques in teaching, mass production of recording and viewing equipment, and more pupils studying languages over a longer sequence. Along with this growing interest in foreign languages has come a change in the objectives for the foreign language learner. He is now expected to master the skills of communication--understanding the native speaker and communicating effectively in return. Reading and writing are to be built on this solid base of understanding speaking.

The low-average and below-average pupil often has not been able to measure up to the standards. Is it because he has been "left out" when objectives were set? Can foreign language be made meaningful to him?

Since American education has committed itself to offering education to all, should we limit the study of languages to the "gifted or above average?" Do we have a responsibility in foreign language to include the low-average and below-average? If we accept the premise that given time and proper conditions anyone can learn a language, what can we do for the large segment of students who are presently excluded?

In an attempt to answer these questions, this report is submitted based upon information gathered through individual research, committee disucssions, and surveys. The participants of the 1967 NDEA Foreign Language Leadership Institute at Central Washington State College were given the opportunity by means of questionnaires to react to the opinions expressed by members of the committee, and also to a domonstration of possibly good and bad teaching techniques made during the committee's formal presentation. The results of the questionnaires are included in this report. The percentages cited reflect the opinions of only those participants who responded to the questionnaires.

IDENTIFICATION

Before anything can be done to help the average and low-average, it is necessary to identify the students who belong to this group and define the terms. What is meant by low-average and below-average? Definition here becomes somewhat elusive. A number of terms are commonly employed to designate those who, for one reason or another, fall within the lower end of the student spectrum: low-average, slow learner, under-achiever, learning handicapped. To some extent, and in some cases, these terms may be overlapping or synonymous, while in other areas or instances they may reflect differing qualities. The committee's concern is more with the first designations than with the subsequent ones; but to a greater or lesser degree, all must be considered. The committee's reading of the literature in the field, and its references to some of the existing limited research, and professional contacts have revealed a number of thoughts and practices with respect to the identification and selection of the low-average and below-average as it pertains to foreign language students. It has not been possible to find any precise definition of low-average; the committee has, therefore, reported its own findings on the "average" designation and suggests that a slight lowering of the standards indicated in this respect would reflect the low-average area. Paul Pimsleur in his "Underachievement in Foreign Language Learning" (1966) speaks contrastively of "average" and "under-achiever." He defines the former as a student whose FL grade is no more than a grade lower than his overall average, or GPA, while the under-achiever is that student whose language grade falls more than one grade below his GPA. The committee does not feel that this discrepancy will always denote the low-average or below-average student, but it may be one of a number of indicators.

Other criteria--and perhaps more directly pertinent ones--suggested for the identification of the average area are:

1. Stanines 4,5, or 6
2. GPA near C--C+
3. IQ 95-110
4. Appropriate score on the MLAT or Pimsleur Tests
5. Teacher-counselor identification
6. Over-all maturity about the same as that of peers

For the below-average the following appear pertinent:

1. Stanines 1, 2, or 3
2. GPA below C
3. IQ below 95
4. Low score on the MLAT or Pimsleur Tests
5. SCAT Verbal Reasoning Score--50th percentile or below
6. Teacher-counselor identification
7. Over-all maturity noticeably below that of peers such as: poor co-ordination in motor skills, short attention span, emotional problems that materially affect other areas.
8. Difficulty in effecting self-expression appropriate to age and maturity level (especially with respect to speaking, but also in writing)

The committee felt that it was important that an attempt be made to identify students with respect to low-average and below-average quality whenever their FL programming would occur, or whenever they would be subject to transfer and involvement in a new FL program. Thereafter, such identification should be made continuously throughout the student's FL career.

For students first entering a school system, the identification should be made at the time of registration and should, if possible, take cognizance of any language aptitude test scores in the record. In the absence of these, it should take into consideration the student's cumulative files and the recommendations of his teachers, both classroom instructors and language specialists.

For students already matriculated in the school, the continuing program of identification and appropriate placement should consider a cumulative GPA, counseling records, anecdotal files, etc. The opinions and observations of counselors should be sought, as should the evaluation and recommendations of teachers. Consultation with the school nurse or the psychologist should be held whenever a physical or a psychological problem is indicated. Aptitude tests such as the MLAT on the Pimsleur are recommended; or preferably, a combination of the aptitude test battery score plus the GPA.

In any identification-placement program there may be a tendency to rely heavily upon tests in the manner cited above. In this regard it might be well to call attention to Lado's admonition:

"A questionable use of FL aptitude tests is made when students are not allowed to study a language because of lack of aptitude. If the FL is being taught primarily for its educational value, it may be an extremely valuable experience for a student with little aptitude to take a course in a language. Aptitude testing might be used, however, to group the students into fast and slow sections according to their proficiency and ability to learn."

The committee submitted to the participants in the 1967 NDEA Foreign Language Leadership Institute a questionnaire regarding practices and considerations with respect to the low-average and below-average student. The results of that questionnaire pertaining to the areas of definition and identification are as follows:

I. How do you identify these students?

    A. GPA, 42%
    B. Standardized tests, 64%
    C. Teacher recommendation, 62%
    D. Other:
        1. Counselors, 6%
        2. Local proficiency tests, 3%
        3. Auditory ability (GPA Standardized Tests, above), 3%

4. Tests to identify extent or lack of skills or abilities necessary, such as memory and attention span, to conceptualize, etc., 3%
5. None specifically, 3%
6. Placement test for bi-linguals, grades in English, C required for placement in the next level
7. IQ tests, ITED, 3%
8. Standardized tests for beginning courses, teacher recommendation for continuing courses, 3%

Comments: We really have no offering for below-average students; we do group homogeneously by previous FL experience. At the present time many districts do not group in FLs.

It is evident that standardized tests and teacher recommendation lead in the list of practices used to identify student.

II. Approximately what percentage in your system fall into these categories in the FL program?

A. Low-average: responses range from 1% to 40%
B. Below-average: responses range from none to 30%

III. Are these students concentrated in any one area? The heaviest concentrations seem to be centered in Levels I and II

SPECIFIC GOALS

The next step after the identification of the slow learner is the establishment of a program determined by the school to fit his needs. This will necessarily involve setting realistic goals. The committee feels that it should be the privilege of the low-average and the below-average students to study a FL as long as they are motivated to do so. A great deal depends on the teacher of these groups. Is he (the teacher) able to help the students acquire the desired skills by inspiring confidence in them and leading them to the fulfillment of previously determined goals? It is the consensus of the committee that the audio-lingual approach is appropriate for this type of student also.

The success of learning in an educational setting consists of five kinds of elements:

1. The learner's attitude, defined as an inverse function of the amount of time that will be required to attain mastery of a task
2. The learner's general intelligence as shown by his ability to understand the nature of the task he is to learn
3. The learner's perseverance, defined as the amount of time the learner will engage in active learning efforts
4. The quality of the instruction
5. The opportunity for learning afforded the student or the amount of time allowed him for learning.

The first three elements are student-centered, but the last two depend on the instructional process. Assuming that students need different amounts of time for learning, it is evident that a fixed rate of presentations may not be suitable. In a regular class presentation, the teacher may pace the work for the more gifted students or for the slower learners. Both groups must inevitably suffer, since neither group actually receives the opportunity for learning that its ability warrants. Stroud and Grambling experiemented to prove that slow leaners require more trials to learn lists of all lengths than do fast learners but, when they have learned them, the slow learners retain them as well as fast learners. In view of these findings, one realizes that possibly these students (slow learners) are hurried along in the regular stream of learning without due consideration for their particular needs.

From the survey made of the participants, it was found that the majority concurred that the audio-lingual approach should be used and that the goals should be primarily to develop listening comprehension and speaking skills. These skills should be developed at a pace suitable to the rate of learning of these students.

Specifically, the objectives should be:

1. To understand the foreign language as it is spoken by native speakers in conversations based on every-day situations:
    a. The student's own experiences
    b. Questions about his school and social activities
    c. Similar activities of his peer group in the country where the language is spoken
    d. Stories, brief descriptions of current events
    e. Short dialogues suited to his experiences and vocabulary range
2. To speak the foreign language with reasonable fluency and correctness in the same everyday situations mentioned above
3. To learn some aspects of the foreign culture through conversational units on the home and family life, recreational activities, clothing, foods, school life, etc., of the people whose language is being learned. He should be able to discuss these simple aspects of the foreign culture in the target language.

The committee found from the questionnaire that the majority of the participants felt that listening comprehension and speaking skills should be mastered to a high degree before reading and writing are introduced and also that some aspects of the foreign culture should be taught. However, half of the participants would teach the culture in the target language and half would teach it in English.

These students, in studies made, indicated that their prime reason for taking a foreign language is to be able to speak it. This pleasure in speaking the target language has strong motivational value.

ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION OF PROGRAM

A foreign language program for the low-average and below-average needs to be carefully organized and administered. The administration and organization of the program should consider articulation, grouping, mobility, and credit. In order to promote better understanding and greater articulation in such a program, the committee agrees that one must take students from where they left off the previous year. As Henry Sweet said in THE PRACTICAL STUDY OF LANGUAGE: "No training will ever make a slow mind or a bad memory equal to the mind and memory of a great linguist," but "we may reasonably hope that we can bring the goal (that is a realistic goal) within the reach of all who are ready to make the necessary sacrifices of time and trouble." Therefore one must make an effort to carry the students as far as they can go. Where homogeneous grouping is used, it is important to place students in the right stream for maximum learning and to allow them to move up or down as the situation arises. In many FLES programs heterogeneous grouping is used unless the classes become homogeneous as a result of scheduling in other subjects. In a Pimsleur study, students expressed a desire for ability grouping, and they preferred a teacher who expected more of them to a teacher who merely passed them along. This would imply that success is important to the student even though he may be in the low- or below-average grouping. Some communities have ability grouping throughout the entire system while others start selectivity in placement in the junior high and senior high school. Still others retain heterogeneous grouping.

In scheduling, consideration should be given to allow flexibility which permits a child to be regrouped according to his progress or ability. Too little is known about the factors involved in determining the variation in mental and motivational areas. It is a well known fact that by adjusting the pace and reducing the amount of content, there is greater achievement. However, if there is a lack of mobility in the FL program, the rigidity of the one group will place an artificial restriction on the total program.

The topic of equivalency or credits is difficult to solve. This is an area which is influenced by regulations imposed by the local system and the state department. Some localities count credit toward promotion in the middle school or junior high school, and toward graduation in the senior high school. Nevertheless, when a student from a low-average group wishes to continue in a post-secondary school, it is difficult to equate his work with that of a student in a higher group. The slow learner may take four years to complete one or two levels. The committee found from the questionnaire submitted that 12 schools had heterogeneous grouping whereas 15 schools had homogeneous grouping. The number of tracks within a school system or area depending upon the level of the FL varied from 2 to 10.

The topic of pacing and regrouping resulted in this tabulation: thirteen schools permitted students to progress at their own rate while nineteen had no distinction between the slower and the faster learners. Nineteen schools regrouped students, but ten schools allowed no flexibility in changing tracks.

The most popular type of credit was either 1 credit per year or 5 credits per year for a FL. Six schools made a distinction between credit for graduation and credit offered for post-secondary school. Eleven made no distinction. It would seem that there is no standard procedure in the areas of articulation, grouping mobility, and credit. It might be advisable to consider the possibility of developing some uniformity in the approach to these problems.

METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS

Methodology and materials have to enter into any foreign language program which attempts to include the low-average and below-average. The thoughts of foreign language scholars and curriculum theorists such as Robert Lado and Hilda Taba, that both materials and methodology must be correlatdd and specifically geared to their needs is corroborated by many others. A wide variety of teaching techniques is recommended to provide for their individual learning needs. There is also a strong emotional element involved in the learning of a foreign language. This element is closely related to learning in any child, but with the low-average and the below-average it may be even more significant. Drills should be practiced for short periods of time and interspersed with a lighter device such as a game or song. Visual aids such as pictures, transparencies, artifacts, and drawings provide a break from the drill, and are reinforcing elements. The choice of specific devices and their success will depend upon the creativity of the teacher and materials which are available. It must be realized, of course, that the methods and the materials used must be linguistically sound and culturally authentic.

As a part of the committee's presentation, various techniques were illustrated. The participants viewing this demonstration responded to a questionnaire as to the appropriateness of the teaching and testing devices utilized. The results of this questionnaire revealed that choral repetition, the use of visual cues, visual reinforcement of response, use of limited vocabulary, and oral testing devices were regarded as more appropriate for the low-average and below-average student. In the tabulation the following results were indicated, stated in terms of percentages of those responding to the questionnaire:

	More Appropriate	As Appropriate	Less Appropriate
Choral repetition	61%	36%	3%
Use of visual cues	60%	34%	6%
Visual reinforcement of response	60%	34%	6%
Use of limited vocabulary	61%	36%	3%
Use of oral testing devices	57%	37%	6%

Teaching techniques which were considered to be equally appropriate for all levels of ability include the use of pattern drills, choral response, native rate of speech, chain drills, single slot substitution, and generalization of the principle involved. A percentage tabulation indicated:

	More Appropriate	As Appropriate	Less Appropriate
Use of pattern drills	40%	52%	8%
Choral response	51%	43%	6%
Native rate of speed	0%	66%	34%
Use of chain drills	25%	55%	20%
Single slot substitution	46%	46%	8%
Generalization of principle	23%	43%	34%

Teaching and testing techniques which the participants felt to be generally less appropriate for the low-average and below-average student included use of vocabulary lists, exclusive use of the target language, multiple slot changes in pattern drills, and written testing. The participants' reactions, tabulated by percentages were:

	More Appropriate	As Appropriate	Less Appropriate
Use of vocabulary lists*	11%	20%	55%
Exclusive use of target language	6%	36%	58%
Multiple slot changes	8%	25%	67%
Written testing	3%	25%	72%

*Inappropriate for any group of students 14%

EVALUATION

In any foreign language program, evaluation plays an important part. Both progress and proficiency tests serve useful purposes for the teacher as well as for the pupil. Progress tests are given to measure the extent to which the pupil has mastered the material presented in the classroom and in the laboratory. They include quizzes, unit tests, and quarterly examinations. First and foremost, a test given to the student evaluates the effectiveness of the teacher. Patricia O'Connor declares, "On a test, if the student makes too many errors, the teacher flunks." Too many failures alert the teacher to the necessity of reviewing the method of presentation and of adopting a different approach. This is of prime importance for the teacher of slow learners. Secondly, tests should furnish an opportunity for the pupil to show how well he can handle specific elements in the target language. Tests should not be designed to point up the pupil's ignorance or lack of application. The low-average pupil has already been frustrated far too often by failure. Satisfactory results give him a sense of achievement and the necessary thrust to work harder. In preparing a classroom test which will give the slow learner a "fair" chance to show what he knows, the following guidelines merit special consideration:

1. Announce the test in advance.
2. Make the review assignment as specific as possible. The below-average pupil has poor study habits. A review outline with specific exercises will help him study efficiently.
3. Use the same techniques and testing devices on the test as those used in class.
4. Give clear directions in English.
5. Test all announced items. The pupil needs to be able to trust the teacher. If he can't, he may not prepare for the next test.
6. Maintain a pattern of difficulty. Begin with problems he can attack promptly and confidently, and continue with items which gradually increase in difficulty.
7. Exclude misspelled forms or incorrrect structures.
8. Test one thing at a time. A test intended to evaluate pronunciation should not be used to evaluate structure and grammar.

In dealing with the slow learner, it is wise to avoid a full-period test. Allow a few minutes at the beginning of the period for a warm-up and review. If the testing takes place the last period of the day, the slow learner needs at least five minutes to switch from English to the foreign language. Plan the period so that as soon as the papers have been collected, there is time to go over the answers. This is particularly helpful for listening comprehension tests, for written tests, or for written tests with oral cues. Overhead transparencies with the correct answers (in large type) reduce the opportunities for misunderstanding. This is precisely the moment when the pupils are most curious to know what the correct answers are. If several days elapse before the corrected papers are returned, the pupils are more interested in their grades than in learning from their mistakes.

The difference between a test and a quiz is one of dimension and purpose rather than item content. The quiz is much shorter and may be given announced or unannounced. Immediate confirmation of answers should always take place. Frequent quizzes acquaint the learner with the types of items which will appear on later tests, and they keep the teacher "in tune" with how well he is communicating with the class. Many teachers feel that it is not necessary to give a mark for every quiz. The object of this type of testing is to show the pupil where he needs to concentrate his efforts in learning. If the slow learner is constantly under tension and fear of "failing once again," he can not think clearly. John Holt, author of HOW CHILDREN FAIL, reminds us that "The scared learner is always a poor learner."

On spoken tests those pupils who have performed poorly may be corrected individually or in a small group after the period. When one pupil is being corrected, however, the entire class should participate. No pupil should be corrected at length in front of his classmates; each pupil has a dignity worthy of respect.

The teacher needs to assess the strengths and weaknesses of his students. Here the auditory discrimination test and the sound-symbol test would be helpful. According to the study conducted by the Ohio State University Research Foundation in 1963, there exists a talent for learning foreign languages, namely auditory ability. Mr. Paul Pimsleur defines this as the ability of receiving and processing information through the ear. He feels that a serious research attack is called for on the role of auditory ability in foreign language learning in order to answer such questions as:

How can auditory ability be improved?

How strongly does eye-and-ear mindedness affect language learning?

Does the problem reside in the parts of the brain or in the parts of the ear which recieve it?

Whereas progress tests are prepared by the classroom teacher for frequent evaluation of daily performance, a proficiency test defines a pupil's level of achievement over a longer period of time, a year or perhaps two years. Proficiency tests may be prepared by a committee of teachers and given to all students regardless of grouping. They are regularly used to determine whether the pupil has sufficiently mastered the skills, phonology, and structures previously agreed upon as the stated objectives of the course. The results from the proficiency tests, tegether with the teacher's evaluation of the total pupil performance, determine whether the pupil is prepared to work successfully in the next level.

The members of this participant committee would like to suggest that foreign language teachers have been expecting too much too soon from the slow learners. Could not more be accomplished through teacher-pupil conferences, monthly perhaps, where the pupil and teacher would discuss frankly the factors affecting the student's performance? Instead of a numerical or a letter grade, would it not be more meaningful to report in terms of progress--or lack of progress--in the four skills? As a final grade for the year, even if his progress did not warrant his advancing to the next level, could he not receive a grade indicating that in the teacher's judgment he had made satisfactory progress within his group?

CONCLUSION

To summarize, the committee feels that it is possible to make the study of foreign languages meaningful to the low-average and below-average, but there needs to be a great deal of research in the areas which have been examined. The following are recommendations:

1. The need for better tests to determine the slow learner
2. The nature and limitations of valid predetermined goals and time to achieve them
3. Organization and administration of a challenging program for the slow learner, offering him the possibility of success
4. The study of special teaching methods which can reach students of low aptitutde for foreign language
5. Materials geared to their age, aptitude, and interest
6. Tests which evaluate their progress in line with the objectives which have been set up for them and not give them a "false" impression of their ability, but a rewarding "sense of achievement."

The committee has found no creditable evidence to support the hypothesis that it is impossible to develop a foreign language program in which the majority of students can be successful. It is the general feeling that the field is limited only by the lack of research in this area, and the research must come from the classroom.

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RECENT TRENDS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS

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RECENT TRENDS in FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS

In determining what is recent in techniques and materials for this report it has been necessary to exclude some of the more sophisticated devices which experimental work has revealed as having some promise, but which are unlikely to have any immediate impact on classroom teaching. Those areas with which we do concern ourselves may appear to some to be hardly new, but the frequency with which they appear as subjects for research, as topics for scholarly articles in various language journals and as worthy material for dissemination by publishing houses, would suggest that these are the areas which should receive our attention. Current trends in teaching techniques and materials would seem to focus on the following areas:

1. The Audio-Visual Approach.
2. Programmed Instruction.
3. Recent trends in FLES.
4. Language Laboratory and Electronic Classroom.
5. New Techniques in Testing.

It would be amiss to ignore the increasing research on the part of scholars in several disciplines who have concerned themselves with practical teaching problems at all levels of foreign language instruction. Some of their conclusions have been conflicting and difficult to understand by the average teacher who is usually without more than a superficial knowledge of linguistics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. It behooves us all as interested parties to attempt to understand the research, to be aware of new discoveries by scholars in the contributing disciplines, and to be prepared to accept or reject new materials and techniques as fits our concepts of objectives and methods.

THE AUDIO-VISUAL APPROACH

Although the earliest important visual system for the teaching of foreign languages was presented by Comenius in the Orbis Sensualium Pietas in 1658, little was done to develop his idea for many years. An article by G. Richardson indicates that although Comenius' idea had obvious connections with the direct method, the advocates of the direct method did little to take advantage and develop the linguistic concepts of the visual approach prior to the present decade.[1] Many of the language texts of the twentieth century had only brief illustrations, with little or no effort to exploit the visual aspect.

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[1] G.Richardson, "The Use of Visual Aids in the Teaching of Modern Languages," ADVANCES IN THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES, Vol. One, B. Libbish, Editor.

During World War II the need for well-trained speakers of foreign languages become so obvious and so urgent that special intensive courses were instituted by the U.S. Government for the training of Army and other Government personnel. The motivation was, of course, much higher than had been the case in most previous language training. However, the so-called Army Method courses made the public and the teaching profession more aware of the low motivation of language students and the poor quality of foreign language instruction. This awareness and newly stimulated interest continued until the date of the Russian Sputnik.[2] This event was one of the principal stimuli to make Americans realize that the world was actually diminishing in relation to speed and distance and that the percentage of Americans who could understand and make themselves understand in at least one foreign language was apparently far smaller than the percentage of bi-linguals in many of the world powers (or even potential world powers).

Since World War II and Sputnik there has been a massive effort to improve methods in the teaching of foreign languages. In general the motivation and especially the time at the disposal of students, was insufficient to attempt training students of schools at any level of the intensive Army Method. Therefore, language instructors and psychologists began concentrating on methods and approaches that would genuinely improve foreign language instruction, given the limitations of time. One of the most common approaches adopted was audio-lingual. This approach usually included the use of a language laboratory and emphasized the use of the voice of native speakers through tape recorders for learning correct pronunciation and intonation and for memorization and comprehension of language structures, etc. In the instances in which the written language was not used, students frequently complained of the difficulty of comprehension or their inability to acquire the basis of the language only by the audio approach. The problem is summarized by Albert Valdman:

> In sum, the spoken language and the writing system do not correspond directly, and their complex relationship will receive the careful scrutiny they deserve only after linguists and language teachers abandon the idea that one is a direct representation of the other.[3]

As John B. Carroll points out in Chapter 6, "current learning theories suggest that better learning and retention are achieved by adding the visual sensory modality to support the auditory signal."[4]

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[2] N.R. Ewing, "Advances in Teaching Methods," ADVANCES IN THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES, Vol. One, B. Libbish, Editor.

[3] Albert Valdman, TRENDS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING, p. xvii.

[4] John B. Carroll, STUDY OF LANGUAGE, p. 138.

Peter Guberina summarized the importance of the visual aspect in the learning of a language:

> When a child learns his mother tongue, he primarily relies on the presence of reality. The acoustical signal for the objects is only a supplementary representation of these same objects. In the first phase of searching for a name of an object, the quickest way is to see the object (i.e., the reality), and to refer to it by its name. The beginner does not know the words of a foreign language. It would therefore be useless for him to hear them, unless there is a visual stronghold. Comments would only be a further descent into the unknown if visual stronghold did not appear as a central point in the teaching.
>
> A picture can represent not only objects, people and natural phenomena, but also the basic situation of life. When the meaning is represented by a picture and a corresponding sound signal, the basic function of a language is achieved, i.e., the expression of meaning by sound. So instead of the order: (a) word, (b) meaning, the opposite order is established: (a) meaning, (b) word. This reversed order is only apparent, and not established because of the pedagogical effectiveness; it corresponds, in fact, to the actual functioning of the language.[5]

There are now a number of commercially developed "methods" of the audio-visual approach, but it will be sufficient to discuss the presentation and apparent advantages of two of these. The Encyclopedia Britannica Films (which now has French and Spanish versions) and the St. Cloud Method (which is known as the "voixet Images de France").

The technical procedure of the EBF may be described in general terms as follows:

1. Presentation (preview, prepare, presume)
II. Memorization (Chorus, Section, Individual)
III. Manipulation (Review, Variation, Reconstruction)
IV. Generation (Direction, Selective, Creative)

The principal medium of presentation of the EBF Method is moving picture film.[6] In the Spanish version, film strip is an integrated part of the presentation to help the student make generalizations about linguistic concepts involved in the film. The advantages of the EBF Method, according to its exponents, are the following:

(1) Presentation of a total language picture.
(2) Presentation of all three systems of communication (language, paralanguage and kinesics.)
(3) Student involvement in a language situation. (Students can relate themselves with what is going on in the film and with the people involved.)

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[5] Petar Guberina, "The Audio-Visual Global and Structural Method," ADVANCES IN THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES, Vol. One, B. Libbish, Editor.

[6] A stop-film device is considered important equipment in connection with the presentation of the film.

(4) Presentation of deep culture (e.g., greetings, relationship between parents and children, family environment.)
(5) Presentation of formal culture (historical places, geography and literature through natural situations, etc)

The visual presentation of the St. Cloud Method is through film strips. The reason for preferring film strips to moving pictures is principally the greater maneuverability of the former. The question of economy is probably another factor. Cinema films are available (at least in connection with the French version "Voix et Images de France"), which are integrated and very helpful but not essential. The technical procedure of the St. Cloud Method is the following:

I. Presentation (Introducing the student to the situation and the language that accompanies it.)
II. Explanation
III. Repetition
IV. Memorization
V. Verification
VI. "Exploitation" (Creative work of the students in situations as normal as possible.)

This procedure is applied first to the "leçon" (which introduces a situation and the basic vocabulary) and through the "mécanismes" (which introduces the grammatical structures.)

In both the EBF and the St. Cloud Methods, reading and writing follow the learning of speech in natural sequence. However, this will not be discussed, as it might be stated that the sequence of reading and writing is not necessarily an essential characteristic of the audio-visual approach. What is more important is the relation of the global-structural approach with the visual approach, especially since the method taught is entirely through the target language.

The advantages claimed for the St. Cloud Method are practically the same as those of the EBF method. It is permeated with deep culture experiences but has fewer formal culture aspects.

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

It would certainly appear that programmed learning has become a new teaching reality and all professionals concerned with language teaching should know what it is and what its potentiality may be. It may well be that it has an important place in the independent and individual study instruction which is an essential part of flexible scheduling; or, as some programs claim, they may have value in remedial work.

There are at present many programmed self-instructional courses in foreign languages. Fernand Marty has done a great deal of work in this area and has drawn the following conclusions about the disadvantages of this type of instruction:

1. Students miss the student-teacher relationship.
2. There is a lack of motivation.
3. Faulty pronounciation.
4. Failure to detect errors accurately and too much time spent in detecting errors.

5. No opportunity for self expression.
6. Dissatisfaction of communicating with a machine.

A completely self-instructional program in foreign languages may never be a practical reality, but there is growing evidence that large portions of the curriculum can be presented in programmed form.

In evaluating programmed instruction one should look for the following features:

1. Course objectives should be stated in advance, well detailed and stated in behavioral terms.
2. The material must be in a carefully graduated sequence of frames.
3. Each student must respond at his own rate to each frame.
4. Students must receive immediate reinforcement.

One program which is neither self-instructional nor programmed in the strict sense of the word, but which does contain many features of such material, is the "Spanish for Communication" by William Bull et al. This program has the teacher carefully structured into the program. Teachers' daily lesson plans contain all of the pertinent information about methodology, special techniques, drill procedures, linguistic problems, etc. The approach is an eclectic one based on the philosophy that many methods have certain outstanding features, that each has produced some students who achieve mastery of the language, and that no one method is superior to another.

The Bull program contains 300 daily lesson plans which are the heart of the material. These daily lesson plans are designed to be self contained and self explanatory.

The best source for information about self-instructional language materials is the Center for Applied Linguistics. The center has compiled descriptive information. New programs are constantly being developed and published and as they become available the Center will continue to issue descriptive information sheets.

RECENT TRENDS IN METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING FLES

The teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school is a subject of current interest and growing concern not only at the national level, but internationally as well. Traditionally monocultural,monolinguistic, and ethnocentric nations and communities are recognizing the vital need for cross-cultural and international understanding to the extent of spending children's and teachers' time and effort and a nation's money on it. This is implied by the attention focused upon the teaching of foreign languages at the elementary levels and the establishment of long language sequences which reflect the cultural, linguistic, and general educational goals in varying degrees.

Current literature indicates that it is generally accepted that there are four basic skills which should be developed in learning a modern foreign language. The methods and techniques for developing these skills vary depending on the specific goals sought, the latest research findings, and the individual's perception as to the best means of achieving these goals.

Historically, the pendulum has swung between two extreme approaches to the teaching of modern foreign languages: "Grammar-Translation Method" and "Direct Method." Nothwithstanding, current practice has revealed certain methodology toward which there seems to be convergence.

At the elementary level, the emphasis is on the sequential development of the four basic skills. Current language teaching approaches emphasize the development of these skills - understanding, speaking, reading, and writing - in that order. The primary aim is to impart to the child a knowledge of the sound system and of a basic set of structures that can be manipulated accurately and confidently in natural situations within a limited vocabulary. Culture, though not a primary aim, is an integral part of all language instruction. Thus, the linguistic and cultural objectives of the foreign language program evolve through expansion in a spiral approach. The degree to which these skills are developed in the primary schools varies greatly depending on the number of years of instruction, the length and frequency of classes, and the teacher's individual ability.

Although there has been no consensus regarding the length of time that should elapse between the theoretical understanding-speaking phase and the time when the reading-writing phase is added on, there is general agreement that items are normally presented orally before the written form is presented; only those materials that have been mastered orally should be read, and only those materials that have been read should be written. Ultimately the four skills are integrated into the total program and they are taught simultaneously.

Another emergent practice at the elementary level is the increased use by local school districts of skilled regular classroom teachers with a limited knowledge of the foreign language to provide enthusiastic and conscientious follow-up practice to televised foreign language lesson presentations. Inasmuch as it is agreed that it is important to provide the student with an accurate model of speech, the teacher can and does provide native models through the use of recorded materials. At least in the beginning levels, it appears more important to utilize teachers who have knowledge of the principles of child growth and development, experience in methods of play and creative dramatics, knowledge of group techniques of teaching, and skills in formal ways of teaching. In the primary grades, great stress is being placed on the importance of acquiring good pronunciation. However, the idea that we should concern ourselves with the teaching of phonemic discrimination as a first linguistic approach to the mastery of good pronunciation habits and that we should leave distinctions to be mastered at a more advanced level has received some attention.

Another characteristic of current methodology is the emphasis on minimal use of the students' mother tongue and the increased use of the target language in the classroom. Wide acceptance of this method reflects the need of placing the students in communicative situations which more closely simulate "real-life" situations. The native language is restricted to use by the teacher, who, in turn, makes minimal use of it when, in the teacher's opinion, the native language best serves the specific situation, i.e., when presenting sentences by sentence English equivalents of dialogues which often appear for the purpose of introducing a concept, or as a culminating activity of a given lesson.

Obviously, the limited time and space have made it necessary to reduce this topic to broad generalizations. In general, however, contemporary language teaching methodology at the elementary school is characterized by its focus on the teaching of courses that are carefully planned and systematic and that aim toward the achievement of linguistic, cultural, and general educational goals. Concomitantly there is wide recognition of the need for teachers with training and logistic support appropriate to the task for achieving these goals.

THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY

For the last seventeen years the use of the language laboratory as an aid in the instruction of foreign language has passed through the stages of zealous acceptance and outright rejection. Now there is growing conviction that the language laboratory has its place in foreign language instruction when used according to sound pedagogical principles.

The advent of the audio-lingual approach nurtured in the public schools by the National Defense Education Act gave impetus to the rise in the use of the language laboratory. As with so many innovative teaching tools the language laboratory was destined to undergo a period in which its proper function was misunderstood. During this period many of its users sought it as a panacea to all of their teaching problems; others confined its use too strictly. Such misunderstanding led teachers into a period marked by disenchantment and a state of floundering. Though the language laboratory is still being misused in some quarters there are increasing signs of sophistication and refinement in the application of methods and techniques related to this teaching tool.

MATERIALS AND TECHNIQUES

When the audio-visual approach was first gathering appeal, two factors made the wise selection of materials difficult:

1. Many adherents of the approach were not trained to teach effectively in the audio-lingual method and they lacked a full understanding of its rationale. As a result, they were incapable of making a wise selection of materials.
2. The text book market was flooded with inappropriate and ineffective materials. Publishers of texts began en masse to revise traditional texts along with poorly constructed

taped materials so that they might be able to advertise their materials as being compatible with the new approach.

Even today some of these ineffective materials are being used. This is not only unfortunate, but continues to contribute to the disillusionment of language teachers with electronic equipment of any kind. Fortunately the reorientation of teachers to the new methods in the NDEA foreign language institutes, the current methods of training new teachers, and the research that has transpired within the last ten years have forced upon the market a greater supply of linguistically sound materials. To varying degrees these newer materials are compatible with the audio-lingual approach which aids in the effective use of the language laboratory.

Teaching materials which are designed to develop the listening and speaking skills effectively and which also integrate class and laboratory work must be used. The challenge for the teacher is in choosing what is productive in learning and rejecting what is not.

There seems to be an increasing interest in the installation of electronic classrooms in new schools and in schools needing facilities to accomodate growing enrollment. The difference between the two appears to be one of convenience. Those schools having both of these teaching aids have found it convenient to use the lab on a library basis with greater emphasis on comprehension.

A general agreement throughout the profession stresses the importance of having lab materials closely related to classroom materials. Some disagreement, however, does exist as to whether or not it is always necessary to practice these materials in the classroom prior to drilling them in the lab. A rigid stand either way on this pedogogical point is not very realistic. One must in each instance consider the types and levels of the programs and materials.

Hutchinson states that the format of recorded material for student imitation and response is often stimulus-response-confirmation. The three cycle drill is frequently frustrating to the student who sincerely wants to make a second response which will be more correct. The four cycle drill (S-R-C-R) has the additional advantage of having the student hear the acoustic image of the model before proceeding to the next item. However, if all five cycles are included in such a drill irrespective of the student's ability it may result in a build up of boredom and a loss of interest on the part of the more able student. It may be that certain students can experience success by proceeding through only a three cycle drill.

We must continuously make an effort in the lab as well as in the classroom to provide for the individual differences exhibited by the students.

The area of comprehension provides a fertile field for the skilled and imaginative teacher. The short wave radio provides an unending source of material; recordings of broadcasts in the target language of commercials, news dramatizations, music of all kinds, can easily be made. Careful editing and grading of these materials are essential in order that the material presented in the laboratory may relate closely to the scope of the student's experience in the language.

Recombination of linguistic concepts: new situations, narrative or short stories can be developed by selecting concepts from a number of previously learned dialogues and lessons and combining them.

Recordings of short stories and plays: these also should employ concepts and vocabulary similar to those that the student can control. The general setting and the characters should be discussed prior to using the taped reproduction in the laboratory.

Incorporating visuals (films, filmstrips, transparencies, etc.) with the above materials greatly enhances the student's possibility of success. Another consideration should be the use of a variety of voices with the taped materials to acquaint the students with the difference in speech representative of age, sex, and regional groups.

RECENT TRENDS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TESTING

Most teachers, and foreign language teachers in particular, can glibly quote from their curriculum guide regarding the stated objectives on their course offerings. On closer examination, however, one frequently finds that the activities in the classroom are not always directed toward these stated goals.

A much truer reflection of a teacher's pedagogical aims can be obtained by examining the measuring devices that a teacher uses. By their tests you shall know them. Since the advent of the new key, most foreign language teachers adhere verbally to the teaching of all the four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing, combined with culture learning. Yet most teachers grade their students on the basis of performance on teacher-constructed tests on vocabulary, knowledge of grammar, and some reading and writing. Since students soon learn to put forth effort where it pays off in the form of grades, the students neglect that which is not tested, and consequently the foreign language program in many schools is not attaining its stated goals.

However, when one examines the current standardized measuring instruments in the field of foreign languages, one discovers that all four skills are tested. Thus many students who receive high grades on teacher-constructed tests, do not score so well on the standardized foreign language tests. Obviously, the situation needs to be remedied.

First, our attention will be directed to the most current standardized tests, including aptitude tests, and then will follow a discussion of teacher-constructed tests in an attempt to show the teacher of foreign languages how his tests may be brought into line with the stated objectives of the foreign language course.

In this report, all the technical aspects and concepts of validity, reliability, and test interpretation will not be treated formally to any great extent, since it is taken for granted that the reader has sufficient familiarity with these aspects of testing. However, it is deemed necessary to list the criteria for the evaluation of language tests. The following taken from Robert Lado's book Language Testing, seem appropriate.

1. validity - does the test measure what it is intended to measure?
2. reliability - does the test produce the same scores consistently?
3. scorability - can the test be scored with ease?
4. economy - is the time required for the test reasonable?
5. administrability - can the test be given with the personnel and conditions available?

Standardized Tests

Below is given a short resume of the most widely known commercial foreign language standardized tests used in the schools of America today.

A. Prognostic Tests
    1. Carroll-Sapon Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) (1959)
    2. Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (1966)

The current methods used in selecting students for foreign language study vary greatly from school system to school system, and are often unfair to many students. The most common method is the use of I.Q. and English grades as predictors of success or failure. If the modern language class is to be oriented to the audiolingual method, then such a course demands the testing of abilities in which the student has not had to show a proficiency up to this time. Both the Carroll-Sapon and the Pimsleur test the student's audiolingual ability. However, neither of these tests should be used as a basis for excluding students from foreign language study. Rather, they should be used as a means of diagnosing a student's problems in learning a language. Teachers should not permit counselors to misuse these tests solely for screening purposes.

Viewed strictly as a predictor of probable student success, the Pimsleur appears at the present to be somewhat more valid, since it takes into consideration the GPA of the student. The MLAT appears to be somewhat more reliable.

For a more detailed discussion of standardized tests, the reader is referred to chapter 11 in Trends in Language Teaching, Albert Valdman, editor.

B. Progress Tests

The only progress tests currently available are those accompanying the language textbooks of individual publishers.

C. Achievement Tests

1. California Common Concepts Foreign Language Tests (1962) (French, German, Spanish) (listening test only)

2. MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests (1963)
   (French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish)
   (Listening, speaking, reading, and writing)
   Levels: L (one-two) and M (three-four)
3. Pimsleur Modern Foreign Language Proficiency
   Tests (1967) (French, German, Spanish) (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)
   Levels: Form A (1st level); Form C (2nd level)
4. College Board Achievement Tests
   (French, German, Russian, Spanish, Italian)
   (reading and listening)

All the above achievement tests are designed to measure the proficiency of students. They include in the case of the MLA Coop Tests and the Pimsleur all pertinent skills, not just vocabulary and reading. The student's mastery of the acoustic features of a language, the segmental and suprasegmental phonemes, are sampled. Both his ability to receive and decode and to encode and produce the sound system of a language are important. It is primarily this aspect in the teacher-constructed testing devices that is lacking.

Teacher-Constructed Tests

Unfortunately, even when speaking and listening are stated as aims of foreign language teaching, these two skills are not tested directly in an objective, systematic manner by most teachers. Yet, in acquiring proficiency in a target language, the student must learn to discriminate among the phones of the new language and to differentiate among the distinctive phonetic features of English and the target language. This ability can and must be tested. Likewise stress and intonation tests are essential. All these skills can be tested objectively.

For a detailed discussion of methods of testing for listening and speaking skills, the reader is referred to chapters five and six in Rebecca M. Valette's book Modern Language Testing, and chapters 6 through 10 of Robert Lado's book Language Testing. In these chapters, the teacher is given very specific and practical examples of how one can test for the skills of listening and speaking.

Also of great value to the foreign language teacher will be the forthcoming publication of the MLA, A Handbook on Testing for the Classroom Teacher of French (German, Italian, Russian, or Spanish). This handbook will contain useful examples, in all the languages mentioned in the title, of various methods of testing all the skills involved in learning a foreign language.

Hopefully the teachers of foreign languages will carefully read the above books, and by the use of item analysis, bring their testing in line with their stated goals,

Let us then be up and testing
  All the skills in our curriculum guide
So our students can pass a Pimsleur
  Or an FL test with pride.

Lives of great teachers all remind us
  That their tests are lasting proof
That it's possible to turn out students
  We can really speak without a goof.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM EVALUATION BASED ON A DEFINITION OF OBJECTIVES

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM EVALUATION BASED ON A DEFINITION OF OBJECTIVES

I. Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this project is to provide a guideline or model for evaluating a foreign language program regardless of the levels, materials, or approaches involved. Evaluation is essential to determine whether or not a program is successful in achieving the goals for which it was established. This has become increasingly important in view of the public's current demand for evidence to justify tax expenditures for education.

A program consists of teaching and supervisory personnel, the materials (administrative guides and texts), the students, but more important, the interaction of these three elements. The problem of determining how effective this interaction is at any given point in its development will be explored according to criteria decided with the cooperation of the teacher and in the light of factors derived from experiments in the psychology of learning. In certain guides for evaluating the effectiveness of a program, the emphasis is focused primarily on what the teacher does, the techniques he uses, and in connection with a given methodology. This, for example, is reflected in the current efforts in micro-teaching now in progress at Stanford University (Politzer, 1966). At best, any evaluation or judgment passed by supervisory personnel on visiting a foreign language classroom frequently resolves itself into a discussion of how the supervisor himself might have handled a specific problem or technique and from a purely personal, subjective point of view. A non-subjective point of view would have such characteristics as derive from observable and measurable data which could be agreed upon and substantiated by the supervisor and the classroom teacher. Such data can be gathered during a class session when objectives for each lesson are determined in advance and are stated in terms of terminal student behavior. The objective, rather the achievement of the objective, then becomes the focal point for discussing classroom practive and ultimately--to the extent that achievement is reached--for determining the value of a given program. An excellent example of the application of this perspective at the elementary school level is the Behavioral Outcomes Project in the schools of Norwalk, Connecticut, which took place in 1966-67. (Gerhard, 1967)

Basically an objective is a statement of instructional goals specifying which behavioral changes in the learner are sought by the teacher. The teacher and supervisor should consider objectives a sine qua non of the foreign language program. Far too many of us consider objectives as long-range goals or outcome, and as such they become impractical for the daily class sessions. Therefore we often tend to pay them mere lip service. The result is that courses of study and guidelines frequently contain checklists and evaluative criteria based on a given set of materials and methodology which do not fit every situation. Consequently such directives become ineffective. Whenever materials are changed, the guides become obsolete. In an attempt to resolve this problem we would like to propose one way of considering a solution which entails a more precise definition of instructional goals. This will in turn lead to better communication of procedures and outcomes among foreign language personnel so that the results may be assessed in a less subjective manner and one which is not bound to a particular methodology.

In this paper, then, we hope to present first a discussion of how to formulate objectives in behavioral terms with specific reference to foreign languages. We shall distinguish between operational objectives and procedural statements. This will be followed by several examples of objectives pertaining to foreign language. Next, we shall mention certain factors based on learning principles which can serve as guides to the activity of the teacher in attaining the objectives. Finally, we would like to suggest how evidence based on pupil performance can be gathered through classroom visitations by which the supervisor can correlate his observations with the objectives previously agreed upon with the teacher and thereby make the evaluation of the program a cooperative and continuing process. Although we recognize that there are other aspects involved in evaluation, we shall concentrate on behavioral objectives, an area which has received a great deal of attention especially in the last three or four years.

II. Formulating Objectives

When setting up instructional objectives the teacher must first of all consider the performance level of the students rather than use standards based solely on the teacher's own educational background and experience. The interests and learning ability of the student must be taken into consideration, as well as the amount of instructional time available in which to accomplish the objectives. First, however, let us distinguish between an operational objective and a procedural statement. An operational objective states what change is to take place in the behavior of the learner as the result of instruction. It purports to tell what the learner is able to do at the end of a period of instruction--whether short or long--that he was not able to do at the beginning of instruction. A procedural statement is not really an objective but a declaration of what content the teacher intends to use to bring about this change. It is frequently a statement of teacher activity such as we find in the following examples taken from a recent, commercially published level one teaching guide and which appear at the beginning of each unit.

1. To teach the negative form of verbs learned in previous units
2. To teach the use of cardinal numbers before a noun
3. To teach understanding of questions introduced by combien
4. To introduce concept of the possessive adjectives ma, ta

Therefore, statements such as "to teach the subjuctive," "to explain the difference between parce que and a cause de," "to give pattern practice on être in the present tense" do not indicate what change is to take place in the learner but rather what the teacher intends to do in order to bring about this change. Objectives which are stated in behavioral terms facilitate evaluation because they specify activity which is observable and measurable. For example: "When given a model sentence orally in French containing a noun modified by a possessive adjective and an oral cue taken from a list of nouns, the student will recite the sentence making the appropriate correlation in 4 out of 5 items." Objectives of this type specify what the learner must demonstrate to show that he has achieved the objective.

Minimally acceptable levels of student performance should also be specified before instruction takes place so that the learner will know in advance what level and type of performance are expected when he is evaluated. Setting minimum standards in advance also helps guide the instructor in determining if the instruction has been successful.

In writing objectives then, Mager (1962:12) suggests the following steps:

> First, identify the terminal behavior by name; we can specify the kind of behavior which will be accepted as evidence that the learner has achieved the objective.
>
> Second, try to further define the desired behavior by describing the important conditions under which the behavior will be expected to occur.
>
> Third, specify the criteria of acceptable performance by describing how well the learner must perform to be considered acceptable.

In following this procedure we can identify three elements of an objective: terminal behavior, condition, and criteria. However, only the first two elements are essential to behaviorally stated objectives. The criterion element as previously noted is highly desirable and indeed becomes necessary when grading scales for pupil performance are being considered. The purpose for writing objectives is to communicate intended educational outcomes. If the objective when written can be given to any competent person who is subsequently able to implement it and achieve the results desired, then the writer has succeeded in communicating.

Terminal behavior should be stated in terms which are open to as few interpretations as possible. For example, expressions such as to write, to recite, to read aloud, to identify, to solve, to construct, to say, to list, to compare, and to move are all externalized actions and can therefore be observed and measured. On the other hand activities such as to know, to understand, to appreciate, to enjoy, to believe, to comprehend, to listen, to read, to hear, take place internally and are therefore observable only when they become externalized. (Krathwohl, 1964: 101-175)

The second element, the condition, helps to further define the type of behavior sought by stipulating the situation or stimulus under which the learner is required to perform. The condition can vary depending upon the

the level of specificity and scope of the terminal behavior sought. For instance we might pose the condition: Given any oral declarative statement in the present tense and the introducer, il faut que, the student will recite the transformation using the subjunctive form of the verb. This involves working with only one type of stimulus, il faut que, but at a broader level we might wish the condition to extend to any introducer which requires the use of the subjunctive. On a still broader scope, and once the subjunctive form has been practiced, the pupil's knowledge of usage can be tested by random cueing with various introducers some of which require the subjunctive and others of which require the indicative. This last objective, it should be noted, presupposes knowledge on the part of the learner of the conditions governing the choice of mood when such introducers are used. It is necessary and helpful for the teacher to make sure that these preconditions of learning are met. (Gagné, 1965:25)

The third characteristic of a clearly stated objective is the criterion which can be stated by the use of some of the following terms: a minimum period of time for performance, a minimum number of successful items, percentage, or a minimum acceptable deviation from some standard. Although the level of performance such as "eight out of ten correct answers will be acceptable for passing", is one criterion for measuring the success of a pupil in a given task, the more fundamental question of "correctness" requires a different set of measures. These measures must be spelled out when terms such as "acceptable", "appropriate", "proper," and "adequate" are used in formulating the objective.

III. Examples of Behavioral Objectives

Useful objectives must state what the learner will be able to do when he has successfully completed a learning experience. Because the tasks of learning are dependent upon the acquisition of prior capabilities, we must consider objectives in terms of immediate as well as long range goals. Both types may be specified. In a foreign language program we are concerned basically with the skills of sound discrimination, listening comprehension, sound production in context, correlation of sounds with graphic symbols, comprehension of graphic symbols in context, and reproducing graphic symbols in context when given the sounds they represent. These activities are frequently lumped together under the headings of listening, speaking, reading, and writing; but a little reflection will reveal the desirability for greater precision in specifying the behavior sought, particularly when we wish to test for the acquisition of the skills involved. Consequently, our objectives must be directed toward specific skills. The long range objective may express the goal of a week's work, or it may aim at expected attainment at the close of the unit, the semester, or the completed foreign language level. For example, a semester goal may be: "Students will correctly manipulate the forms of any -ar verb in the present tense." The skill of manipulation could involve oral or written activities, and the subject stimulus might be given orally or in written form. Therefore, all of the prerequisite skills which the student must acquire before he is able to manipulate any -ar verb must be analyzed, identified and specified in short-range behavioral objectives. Long-range goals are termed general objectives, whereas short-range immediate goals are referred to as specific objectives.

Upon analyzing the general objective stated above, we find that the student must be able to manipulate particular -ar verbs before he can be expected to generalize his skill to any -ar verb. Therefore, we might formulate the following objective for attainment over a shorter period of time: "Given a subject promoun orally, the student will recite the appropriate forms of the verbs hablar, tomar, and llamar. Correct responses to 9 or the 12 cues will be passing, and 85% of the class will pass." Here we see the elements that are contained in a behavioral objective. First, a condition or situation is expressed in terms of the stimulus "given a subject pronoun orally." Next, the behavior or action, describing what the learner will do to demonstrate his skill, is stated: "the student will manipulate correctly the forms of the verbs hablar, tomar, and llamar." The final portion of the objective, although not a required element in the statement, is the criterion, or what will be the acceptable minimal level of achievement or performance for passing "Correct responses to 9 of the 12 cues will be passing." An additional criterion "and 85% of the class will pass" states what percentage of the group is expected to achieve the minimal acceptable behavior in order to consider that the objective has been accomplished.

Since we are interested in performance of certain skills, the following examples will pertain to those foreign language skills commonly developed at the beginning levels.

Sound discrimination. After hearing a series of word pairs, one of which contains a fricative d, the student will circle on his answer sheet the letter A or B to indicate perception of the fricative d; twenty-one out of twenty-five items will be considered passing.

Aural comprehension. Given a picture and an oral statement in German, the student marks ja or nein to indicate whether or not the statement fits the picture. Twelve out of 15 items should be answered correctly for a passing grade.

Pronunciation and intonation. Given a key word orally in Spanish, the student will say the complete basic sentence from the dialogue with acceptable pronunciation and intonation. Acceptable means unambiguous to a native speaker as judged by the teacher.

Reading comprehension. Given a paper containing the basic dialogue sentences and twelve numbered drawings, the student will match sentences with the drawings and will be successful if he correctly matches 9 of the 12 tested items.

Writing. When given the first word of a sentence orally, the student will write the basic dialogue sentence indicated within a 30-second pause which will follow each cue. Acceptable performance will be the completion of 8 of the 10 sentences with an average of only one error for each sentence.

Reading and writing. Given twenty printed sentences in French with a new word to be substituted in each, the pupil rewrites them with the correct grammatical correlation. Fourteen correct correlations will be considered passing.

Communication. (Ability to elicit and/or give information in response to an oral or visual stimulus.) Given any question selected from the basic dialogue sentences of units 1 through 6, the student will respond with information appropriate to his personal experience. Thus a student will:

a. Respond to a greeting, give his name, introduce a friend, talk of his family composition and ages, tell where he lives, and tell of his general activities at given times of day. Out of a total of 18 questions (three per unit) the student should respond appropriately to 14 for minimal level achievement.

b. When cued by an instruction either oral or written, in Spanish or English, or by a drawing, initiate communication in greetings,

> ask names, ask about a friend, his identity or state of health, ask about family compositions and ages, ask where another person (either second or third) lives, ask about daily routine with reference to time of day. Out of a total of 18 items (three per unit) the student should respond appropriately to 14 for minimal achievement.

IV. Providing Learning Opportunities

Once the objectives for the course are decided, the teacher must set about planning strategies or activities for enabling the students to achieve the predetermined skills. Ideally, preassessment of the ability of the class should precede formal instruction in order to find out whether members of the class already possess the skills specified in the objective. In foreign language classes, particularly at the outset of the first year, students generally appear with no previous experience; therefore preassessment may be done by aptitude tests. In later classes, diagnostic or achievement tests can be given for this purpose. The next step after preassessment is to select the learning opportunities or activities whereby the students will work toward developing the desired skills. The culmination of this phase is usually in the form of a test to discover whether the objectives have been met. Should the test reveal that the criteria have not been reached, then the objectives and strategies are subject to revision and reapplication. However, we frequently find that instruction fails when it is not guided by certain principles or factors of learning.

Learning activities should be based upon the following five learning principles as suggested by Popham (1965:15-20): appropriate practice, individual differentiation, perceived purpose, graduated sequence, and knowledge of results. These principles are derived from current theories of the psychology of learning which were brought to light through research on programmed instruction. Following is a brief explanation of each principle with an example which shows its application.

1. Appropriate practice

The student must be given the opportunity to practice the type of behavior specified in the objective. Practice should be as close as possible to the objective in order for behavioral changes to be accomplished.

Example: Mr. Alvarez takes his Spanish class to the lab three times a week to give them pattern drill practice on material already introduced in class. The pattern drill will subsequently be used as the basis for an oral quiz.

2. Individual differentiation

Instruction should be geared to the interests, abilities, or achievement of individual students, thus taking into consideration the student's learning potential as revealed by guidance records. Successful teaching can be accomplished to the degree that this principle is used.

Example: Mr. Heinz gives a preassessment test during the first week of school to a class of Level II German students and finds that they have a wide range of achievement. He decides to divide them into three groups--fast, average, and slow--in order to provide for individual differences. However, he gives each group a German name and is careful not to make any references as to their grouping. He bases assignments and class work on the capabilities of each group. He also makes a practice of calling on the brighter students first to give the slower students an opportunity to hear the correct response before calling on them.

3. Perceived purpose

If students can be led to see the value of studying a foreign language, their chances of learning and continued pursuit of the subject are greatly improved. The teacher should strive to find effective ways of communicating such values to the students.

Example: Miss La France majored in French and after graduating from college became an airline hostess with Pan American Airways on the New York to Paris run. She later became a teacher. She frequently tells her classes of experiences she had where her knowledge of French was vital for communication on the job. She also tells them of other career possibilities where the study of a foreign language is essential or at least an asset.

4. Graduated sequence

The learning sequence should always proceed from the simple to the complex, the known to the unknown, the experienced to the nonexperienced, thus requiring a gradual increase of effort on the part of the student. The pace of increase should be consistent with the learner's ability. Teaching units should be paced with fast and slow, passive and active, and steady and intermittent activities to maintain the interest of the student.

Example: In presenting dialogue sentences, backward buildup is an example of graduated sequence, proceeding from a small element to the whole sentence.

5. Knowledge of results
The teacher should let the student know as soon as possible whether he is right or wrong regardless of the type of test given.

Example: The Russian teacher has given a multiple choice test to check reading comprehension of the day's assignments. He asks the students to check their own work in class and goes over the correct responses with them.

It should be noted that the above stated principles or factors are by no means the only ones which may guide the teacher's activity. Others will be mentioned in the section on evaluation.

V. Evaluation

The next question to be taken up concerns the measures and means to be used in determining whether or not the objectives have been reached, and ultimately whether or not the program has been successful. In other words, we must consider the problem of evaluation; how do we judge whether the interaction among teacher, student, and materials has been productive and successful? In our classroom visits, what do we look for in this interaction which will enable us to conclude that a program is viable or not? We shall try to discuss some ways in which these questions may be answered.

Evaluation occurs with the full knowledge of the teacher as to the criteria by which we judge the effectiveness of a program, since they are-for the most part-explicitly stated in the objectives themselves. The objectives have previously been agreed upon by both the supervisor and the teacher. Defining objectives, whether long or short-range, facilitates communication about instruction; and objectives stated behaviorally provide the kind of test the student will be required to perform in order to show that he has acquired a skill. The teacher evaluates his students in several ways, some of which will now be considered.

In foreign language classes we generally find three types of measurement procedures which the teacher uses for gathering evidence about the effectiveness of an instructional strategy, that is, whether or not a given skill was acquired by the student as a result of class instruction. One type is a pencil-paper objective test, usually graded by a key. This is the most common, perhaps, especially in the beginning stages of language learning which deal with skills of cognition (Bloom, 1956). Examples of such tests for the skills other than speaking are abundant in many of those tests which accompany the current new-key materials. In addition, the excellent volume by Rebecca Vallette (1967) incorporates recent findings from the psychology of learning and testing.

A second means for determining the acceptability of pupil responses is a type of check list of criteria for pupil performances. Such performance involves the activity itself rather than a tangible product. For example, the objective may require the use of certain gestures common to the culture of the target language. A check list would contain notations regarding the types of gestures and their manner of execution. A test of oral reading may involve a check list of allophonic variations which depend upon vowel-consonant environments.

For the later stages of language learning particularly, a third type of check list can be used for evaluating the product of the learner. This is particularly useful for essays and composition whether oral or written.

In evaluating an entire program, however, the supervisor is interested not only in how well the students perform on tests, but also in the nature and quality of the teacher activity. Of course, in high achievement classes we recognize that problems of instruction generally are kept to a minimum; but in classes of average to low achievement, we are interested in analyzing the activities of the teacher in order to raise the achievement level. The learning principles mentioned in Part IV of this paper can serve as some of the criteria factors to describe the teacher's instructional procedures at all levels. Each of the following factors is listed with examples of kinds of evidence that might be given to substantiate its use. Note that although the factor may refer to a teaching activity, the evidence for its effectiveness is drawn from pupil performance.

Factor	Evidence that Factor is Used
A. Appropriate practice	Number of opportunities students have to 1) practice writing before a dictation test 2) recite individual dialog lines before being tested

	3) practice the same kind of responses that will be required when tested
B. Reinforcement (reward)	Frequency with which students are encouraged or complimented by the teacher when they respond well orally (Note: there is some evident to indicate that intermittent praise is of more value than constant praise.) Number and kinds of comments written on returned papers to encourage students Any indications that the teacher has secured information concerning what sort of a teacher-response individual students consider to be a reward.
C. Individualization	Frequency with which strong d students are called on to initiate individual oral recitation of new concepts before weaker students are asked to recite with a longer opportunity to listen Frequency with which stronger students are called on to recite dialog sentences before weaker students are called on Evidence of continued reseating of students to provide maximum learning opportunities for weakest students; they may be placed in front of strong students or placed where teacher can call on them more frequently, or placed where they can hear and see best, etc.
D. Continuity and re-entry	Number of consecutive days that a new concept is drilled before skipping a day Number of appropriate re-entries of concepts throughout the entire semester so that students handle the concept best at the end of the semester

	Number of re-entries of a new concept during the first hour that it is presented with appropriate "rest" periods between each re-entry (Each of these kinds of evidence is available from the lesson plans.)
E. Graduated sequence	Number of lessons that provide such sequential presentations as from the simple to the complex, the concrete to the abstract, the known to the unknown, the experienced to the non-experienced, repetition to manipulation to communication
F. Knowledge of correctness of response	Frequency with which a confirmation of a student response to oral drills is provided Frequency with which teacher provides an immediate check for students on a problem-by-problem basis during written work in class Number of homework assignments given with provisions for students to check the correctness of their responses immediately
G. Correction	Consistency with which students who either make errors or are unable to respond in oral recitation are given opportunity to perform correctly after hearing a correct response Consistency with which teacher provides opportunity to practice correct responses to counteract negative learning due to incorrect responses

It is realized that the above factors do not represent an exhaustive list, nor are the types of evidence intended to be limited to those listed. The factors are based on current theories on the psychology of learning, and the evidence is observable and measurable in any foreign language classroom.

The steps involved in the type of cooperative evaluation we suggest, whether with one teacher or a group of teachers, can be summarized as follows:

1. Agreement on the general content of the course to be covered in a specified length of time. Examples:
    a. Situational: greetings, names, Units I-VI.
    b. Grammatical points: être, avoir; ser, estar, haber; sein, haben; declarative and interrogative forms.

2. Agreement on the outline of content in the sequence in which it is to be taught. This is frequently determined by the course of study and the text.

3. Agreement on objectives specified in terms of pupil behavior. These are tentative and subject to revision as the situation may dictate, but an initial committment is proposed to show what pupils must accomplish so that the teacher may be rated occordingly.

4. Agreement on the principles governing the types of evidence collected to describe instructional procedures. The principles already suggested, that is, appropriate practice, perceived purpose, individual differentiation, graduated sequence, and immediate knowledge of results are intended to direct attention to factual--as opposed to inferential--observation in the classroom. Any principle or theoretical framework can be used if it enables the teacher to change specific aspects of instruction in order to improve pupil performance.

We have tried to present a different approach to the problem of assessing a foreign language program by specifying the consequences sought from instruction. This involved an identification of the changes to take place in the learner's behavior, the conditions under which the learner is expected to domonstrate his competence, and the lowest limits of acceptable performance on the part of the learner. Next the instructional act itself involved a consideration of the actual observable activities occurring in the classroom. Then followed a summary of the kinds of evidence available to show the degree to which the desired results were obtained in terms of learner performance and learner product. Finally, we provided a list of experimental variables which may be used in establishing hypotheses for the improvement of instruction. That is to say, if the objectives are not achieved, we can analyze the factors listed above to determine whether a change in the evidence will bring about a corresponding positive change in the performance of the learner. Such analysis serves to point up the dynamic quality of this type of evaluative process. The objectives are not rigid, inflexible rules and tools. They are subject to revision should the hypotheses about instructional procedures derived from pupil performance warrant such a change.

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DESIGNING AND USING
LANGUAGE LABORATORIES
AND OTHER AV AIDS

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DESIGNING AND USING LANGUAGE LABORATORIES AND OTHER AV AIDS

The question whether language labs improve the quality of language learning has been somewhat resolved. Most schools possess some form of a language lab, and studies using control groups, such as in 10 New York City high schools and in Easton, Pa., generally concede that their proper use markedly improves pronunciation, intonation, and the listening and speaking skills. As long as these remain high on our priority list, language labs or their equivalents will perhaps be indispensable to a foreign language program.

This report, therefore, does not purport to add to the many studies made on the effectiveness of a language lab. It assumes that it is an invaluable tool like the textbook, the pen, or the paper. It concedes that its success is related to many variables, above all, to the skill of the teachers, to the quality of the materials, and to the existence of an articulated, coordinated program. Consequently, our report will confine itself to reflecting the language lab as it exists today in our secondary schools. It will be drawn up from surveys and interviews of the participants of this institute, representing supervisors from more than twenty states.[1] Its findings will be summarized in the following six topics:

1. Preliminary Steps to Establishing a Language Lab
2. Language Lab vs. Electronic Classroom
3. Technical Considerations Regarding the Materials to Be Used.
4. Effective Use of the Language Lab
5. Conclusion
6. Addendum - The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in FL Teaching.

A. Preliminary Steps to Establishing a Language Lab

1. Survey

Perhaps the first thing a chairman or a supervisor mandated to install a language lab should contemplate is a survey of his area. This would determine the make of the equipment, the companies installing them, and their reputation for service. His recommendations then could be based on something other than advertisements and hearsay.

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[1] Joseph C. Hutchinson: "The Language Laboratory... How Effective Is It?" VS Office of Education, pp.15 &16.

2. Training
The installation of a new language lab implies a change in teaching techniques, perhaps, from the traditional to an audio-lingual phase. This combined with the need for instruction in the mechanical operation of the equipment, should lead supervisors to think of training for their teachers in terms of institutes, workships, and instruction from company representatives once the equipment has been installed.

3. Materials
Committees of teachers should determine the materials for the language lab. As this could involve complete curriculum revision, it should be planned well in advance. Preferably, these materials could be used with tape recorders a year or two by selected teachers in different schools. Their reports would help to determine the question of final adoption.

5. Types of Language Labs
The supervisor or chairman has to decide which type of language lab will best suit the district's program. He will have to learn about the different types such as:

1. Electronic classroom
2. Language lab
3. Wireless lab
4. Listen/Respond/Record
5. Listen/Respond
6. Broadcast vs. Library Type

A decision here requires writing specifications stipulating precisely the type of lab wanted. The person responsible will find it necessary to read one of the many books on specifications published by the United States Office of Information or by the various education departments of the individual states. His final specifications should reflect consultations with

a. A consultant
b. Representatives of the different companies
c. Teachers
d. Administrators

6. Language Lab Assistant
A foreign language teacher with released time from teaching is necessary to the smooth operation of a language lab. His responsibilities in the main would be to

a. Inventory materials
b. Make them available when requested
c. Maintain materials
d. Report language lab's malfunctioning

e. Enforce procedure and discipline
f. Construct and publish an extra-help schedule.

7. Built-in Guarantees

1. No matter how excellent the quality of the lab or the performance of the installers, booths will occasionally break down. Built-in jacks in each booth will enable the occupant of a non-functioning booth to plug in on a functioning booth. Theoretically, sixty students can plug in and listen to a thirty position language lab.

2. A loudspeaker in the console or on the wall could substitute source in case of a general breakdown.

8. Responsibility

It is the responsibility of the foreign language chairman or language supervisor to draw up specifications, language lab procedures and to select materials in consultation with

a. Administrators
b. Members of his department
c. Consultants
d. Representatives of the various companies
e. A language lab assistant

9. Planning

Planning should begin two years prior to the target date for installation. This would allow for the selection and testing of materials.

Language Lab vs. Electronic Classroom

It is interesting to note the difference in the definition of a language laboratory today from what it was in 1959--from "Language Learning Today, 45 Questions and Answers," September, 1959:....a language laboratory is a complete electronic installation which provides a booth, headset, microphone, sufficient recording facilities for every student in the room to record frequently, and monitoring facilities for the teacher. In 1964, however, Alfred S. Hayes says that:....a language laboratory is a classroom or other area containing electronic and mechanical equipment and arranged to make foreign language instruction more effective.

As stated at a Northeast conference: Too often a laboratory is installed only because it is the thing to do, with no consideration of the needs of the school in question and with no awareness of the fact that the proper and efficient utilization of the laboratory will require a total look at the total foreign language program and a redefinition of its objectives.

We all agree that good teaching practice acknowledges the fact that a continued effort is necessary in order to learn a skill; therefore, under the most optimistic conditions, students should work in the lab every day. Today, a student must demonstrate competency in listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and comprehensibility of speech in order to be successful in the majority of the foreign language programs of the public secondary schools. Then, going on the premise that these are skills, we may further state that the acquisition of any skill requires long, regular, systematic, and active (not passive) participation through physical and mental practice.

The following page is a form of a questionnaire sent out to the 45 participants of the 1967 NDEA Leadership Institute held at Central Washington State College in Ellensburg, Washington.

Of the 44 replies to the survey, 39 had a type of laboratory installation and five did not.

The average number of years of installation was between six and seven years.

Various companies were represented. Those companies mentioned two or more times were as follows: R.C.A. (6), Dage-Bell (4), Webster (4), Raytheon (3), Webcor (3), General Electric (3), Califone (2), and American Seating (2). There were also many other manufacturers mentioned from the specific areas represented.

The average number of positions in the laboratory installation was 31. Of these 31 positions, 25 were audio-active and six positions were audio-active-record. There were 8 participants who had an average of 32 audio-active-record positions. The reason the average was so high was because there were two participants who had 56 and 70 audio-active-record positions respectively.

The service policy was as follows: excellent (6), good (19), poor (11), none (3).

In the operations of the laboratory there were 23 who said the teacher of the class was in charge. Nine reported the teacher and student assistant. In five cases it was the teacher and the laboratory assistant. Only two had a full time lab sssistant or technician.

SURVEY ON THE DESIGN AND USE OF LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

State or Area ______________

Would you please answer the following questions:

1. Do you have a Language Lab? Yes No
2. If so, how many years have you had it? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more
3. Kind (a) Manufacturer (b) Company ____________________

    ____
4. Number of Positions? ________________________________
5. Number of students using above? ______________________
6. Audio-active only? Yes No
7. Audio-active-record? Yes No
8. Number of audio-active-record positions? _____________
9. Service policy? Excellent good poor none

    Other comments ____________________________________

    ____
10. Who operates the Lab? ______________________________
11. Scheduling? How often and length of session? ________

    ____

    If you had a choice of a Laboratory today, what would you do differently? Constructive criticism is requested and will be most helpful to our group.

    ____

    ____

    ____

    ____

    ____

Thank you for your time and consideration. When finished would you please turn in to George Scipione, Lola Mackey, or Bob La Brie.

The scheduling of the laboratory was on the average of 21 minutes for at least two times per week.

On the last question, regarding a change of installation if the opportunity should present itself today, approximately 34 of the participants mentioned the term, electronics classroom, in one way or another.

The following are comments taken from some of the surveys:

> Am considering electronic classrooms. I would set up two electronic classrooms with audio active stations along the walls of the classroom.
>
> We are abandoning our old labs in 2 or 3 schools, permitting these rooms to revert to regular classroom use. In their place we are equipping 9 rooms in one school and five rooms in the other as electronic classrooms of 36 audio-active positions, each with recording at the console.
>
> Electronic classrooms. Provision has been made (cables laid) in our newest buildings. Our feeling is that we want this available to the students whenever it will improve instruction, not just on a scheduled Thursday at 10:00 a.m.
>
> I want as flexible an installation as possible, but I know it will have to be must more than a room in which learning drills can be done.
>
> Would prefer an electronic classroom and a library type installation also.
>
> Given a choice today, I would not have a laboratory as such, but rather electronically-equipped classrooms.
>
> Electronic classrooms and one audio-active-record lab.
>
> I would prefer the electronic classroom to be used to meet the immediate need. I would utilize the language lab as a library for pupil use during study periods and also before and after school.
>
> I would like the audio-active classroom, but I should add one room with an audio active record station.

Because there is reason to believe that what most schools are doing can provide perhaps a predicted pattern for schools in general and because the participants represent a sampling of many parts of the country, who are supervisors representing their teachers in their different schools, the data seem to show a definite move toward a somewhat more flexible type of installation from that of the standard, one room, permanent laboratory.

The design today, it would seem, is moving toward a classroom which is electronically equipped with audio-active head sets only, but with recording facilities at the console.

The information available from the participants of the Central Washington State College Leadership Institute of 1967 tends to further strengthen the fact that to have the ultimate or best installation in order to achieve the best results with the language being taught, one should have not only the electronic classroom but a language laboratory installation which, for optimum success, is utilized as a library.

Technical Consideration Regarding the Materials to be Used

A. Ordering supplies
   1. Tensar, or equivalent - 1½ or 1 mil. thickness
   2. Blank tapes - one year's supply in advance
   3. Blank reels - 3,4,5,7 inch, as needed
   4. Tape clips. tape-splicer, splicing tape. leader tape
   5. Tape de-magnetizer
   6. Tape storage cabinets

B. Editing of tapes
   1. Full track - no turning over, and consequently confusion and loss of time.
   2. Length - only about 15 minutes. Only one small unit to meet one objective. May be much shorter.
   3. Labeling - in detail on both reel and box. Box should have space for record of use and comments of teacher, unless there is a system of separate entries.
   4. Use of splicing tape - divide all sections so that they may be immediately found, or record footage at which any changes in presentation occur.

To accomplish the above, many purchased commercially prepared tapes may need to run onto smaller reels and to be separated with splicing tape. In so doing, one may want to consider benefits from a change in the order.

All of this, as well as the personal preparation of tapes, is to be accomplished outside of the time for regular duties and with extra remuneration.

Effective Use of the Language Lab

From a survey regarding procedures the following determinations were made:

A

Stem	Distribution
1. Teachers having In-service Preparation regarding effective use of the lab	93%
2. Teachers having In-service Preparation for effective use of the materials	70%
3. Teachers testing for listening comprehension	100%
4. Teachers testing for speaking skills	50%
5. Teachers testing for writing skills	9%
6. Teachers testing for reading skills	3%
7. Teachers using lab to reinforce previously taught materials	100%
8. Teachers using the language lab and lab procedure to present new materials	16% (sometimes but not as a rule)

Conclusion:

What does the language lab consist of in many of our districts? From our participants we learn that in most cases it still is a fixed language lab with approximately thirty positions and in a few cases with several positions for student recording. There is a growing tendency to install the electronic classroom because of its flexibility, i.e. the teacher may resort to it when he deems it necessary. Instructions in the lab consist of one to two periods a week as reinforcement to what has been presented previously in the classroom. Testing is based mainly on the listening skills with about half the districts testing for speaking. Generally speaking, the lab work is closely related to the classroom work in the beginning levels. As the levels become more advanced, the language lab serves more as an enrichment and supplementary tool. This may be due to lack of sufficient space or material and could be the subject for another report.

Therefore it might be concluded that the language lab has not changed in the past five years. There has been the introduction of newer material and the addition of new levels to older ones. There has been more training for more teachers in its use and potential. But this has not changed its original design. Perhaps, we are marking time for the advent of programmed material. Or perhaps, as Locke[2] has said, the next step is decentralization. Instead of collecting all students in one building for a lecture, we can give him a seat in his room wherein by closed circuit television he would see and hear his lessons, interact with a large program source, and also call upon a teacher for assistance. But if we can believe the results of our interview, our public schools still live in the age of the little old red language lab with the pot-bellied console.

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[2] William N. Locke: "The Future of Language Laboratories," Modern Language Journal, Vol. XIIX, No. 5, May, 1965.

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The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in FL Teaching

Marshall McLuhan, in his UNDERSTANDING MEDIA, defines cool media as high in participation or audience completion. He points to the time when educators will have to take into account the total involvement factor which makes an educator, par excellence, of such a medium as television, before our children even reach the age of formal schooling. To some, his premise that electronic teaching devices will replace the printed page to a great extent in the school of the future may seem extreme. We may have to wait for some time to see it justified or disproved. In the meantime, as a foreign language teacher, I feel that I should prepare for the onslaught of such cool learners and look about for the most effective equipment with which to meet the challenge.

After surveying the available references, I drew up a list of some of the more recent teaching machines, restricting them primarily to those with audio or audio-visual components, since the list of visual aids is endless and not many of them involve the use of a machine. I then canvassed, by questionnaire, my fellow participants as to their use, their desire to use, or their objection to the use of each of the devices listed, making provision for the addition of new devices not on the list.

The resulting check lists submitted by 34 respondents revealed the following findings which I have divided into three categories:

1. Audio-visual components

Tapes, records, with slides, filmstrips Films, kines	26 used frequently or sometimes
Video tape recorder	3 had used sometimes but 23 were interested in using
Television	10 had used frequently but 14 were interested in using sometimes, and 2 did not believe in using it

New devices listed or suggested by participants, but not generally used or known, include the following:

- a. Pronunciator - an individualized instruction aid with program source and audio-active headphone
- b. Language-Master - sound-record cards
- c. Tele-Lecture - system of phoning in to the telephone company for selected programs
- d. Fairchild Cinephonic Mark IV - table model TV using cartridge film (with one model capable of projecting onto a screen)

  - e. Revere automatic sound-slide projector - cabinet unit with provision for sound recording on slides
  - f. Magnetic projector - sound recording stripe on film

2. Audio components
  - a. Radio- 7 reported occasional use, usually of short wave programs, either in lab or class, for oral comprehension exercise
  - b. tape recorder - 24 use frequently, apart from Section I

3. Visual components
  - a. Overhead projector - 28 used frequently or sometimes
  - b. Opaque projector - 20 used sometimes, 8 were interested in using
  - c. Programmed instruction machines - 18 expressed interest in using, 14 did not believe in

Conclusion:

This rather limited survey revealed that four types of audio and/or visual teaching machines were in general use by participants, usually for group instruction and with teacher controlled materials. With the widespread adoption of flexible scheduling, the implications for the use of these devices (as well as five newer devices not yet in general use) for individualized instruction in study carrels during independent study modules seems unlimited. And what about the use of TV and the video tape recorder in FL teaching? Here, the total involvement factor in the learning process has hardly been touched on, as indicated by Dr. Michel, in the kind of programming which is now general. Who knows what the future will bring as new kinds of FL programs become available through the use of Tel-Star and Com-Sat broadcasts to bring us closer to what Marshall McLuhan calls a "global village" mentality, with all its implications? With prophetic vision W.B. Years looked forward to our electronic era with these words:

> The visible world is no longer a reality,
> and the unseen world is no longer a dream.

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GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF LONG-SEQUENCE PROGRAMS

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GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF LONG-SEQUENCE PROGRAMS

Since the advent of Sputnik modern foreign language has had a grand "lift off" with FLES. For more than a decade the foreign language discipline has continued to receive "booster shots" from the national level. Experts in curriculum development, linguistics, psychology, technology, culture and literature, etc., have made decisive contributions to the teaching of modern foreign languages.

Our application of these contributions from the experts to existing foreign language programs has been unsuccessful. One may look at these programs today and see the retention of the ills from the pre-Brooks era. We still hear of Russian being instituted at the junior year in high school, or an exotic language initiated primarily as a prestige factor by a junior high principal. On the other hand, we continue to here "there is no room in the junior high curriculum for foreign language." When a modern language is started at the junior high level, the involvement of the teaching staff is often ignored in its planning. If a foreign language coordinator has not been approinted, in several instances it has been found that preceding FLES programs and succeeding high school courses may be disregarded in the total foreign language curriculum.

Because these inadequacies persist in our foreign language programs, we feel it is necessary to once again emphasize the need for implementing carefully structured programs at all levels of teaching. In this report we will define the rationale of foreign language instruction, sequences, and articulation, and then we will focus attention on an actual case study in which many of these language problems exist.

RATIONALE FOR THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM

The status of foreign languages in the basic curriculum must be determined in relation to the general aim of education and to individual needs. Ultimately, the function of education is to help people understand the meaning of their lives, become more sensitive to the meaning of the lives of others and relate the two more fully. As such, it must be concerned with the development of a harmonious society of autonomous but empathetic individuals. The necessary meaningful relationship can only exist with people we know, who are exposed to us as we are to them. In this light, the value inherent in the study of foreign languages is beyond question.

Foreign language study as a learning experience implies more than a mere acquisition of fundamental language skills. It is not simply a mechanical process that involves the speech organs, but deals rather with concepts and understanding. As a complete learning experience, therefore, its benefits spill over into other disciplines. In its humanistic aspects, that is the development of the individual and of society, is found its intrinsic value.

Foreign language learning cannot be fully explained by any one theory. Yet, it is true that at various stages in the process of learning a foreign language, one theory or another may predominate. Thus the approach, the methods and the techniques at any given time must be compatible with the stage in which they are being applied.

With this in mind, the discipline of foreign languages is as important and as influential as any other respected element of the general curriculum in American education. Its effects are felt throughout the spectrum of pedagogical activity. Foreign language study must be a vital part of any curriculum, an essential aspect of the common learning experience of the American student. Therefore, sufficient time to carry out a sequential length that would be of some consequence in attaining the ultimate objective should be provided. For, since it is both a progressive acquisition of skills and a progressive experience, if one limits the time, one necessarily limits the results.

In this broad scope, the most important task of the schools through the secondary level must be the transmission of the essential means to accomplish the primary end of education as it relates to foreign language learning. These requisites are the four fundamental language skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. It is the responsibility of pre-college education to lead the student as far as possible along this path toward proficiency in these basic skills, within the limits imposed by individual ability and the realities of a given situation.

SEQUENCES

If the rationale for the status of foreign languages is acceptable, then it follows that foreign language should take its place among the rest of the disciplines in the general curriculum of American education. This means that formal instruction of foreign language should begin at the earliest possible moment and continue as long as desired. It is realized, however, that the length of any foreign language sequence is going to depend upon the limitations imposed by the local situation.

There are many acceptable variations possible in planning a sequential program. Concerning ourselves with only pre-college education, an optimum program would begin in the kindergarten or first grade and follow through grade twelve. However, most sources indicate that a ten year sequence is ideal, that is, a FLES program beginning in grade three and carrying on through grade twelve. Such sequences demand good FLES operation based on the following principles: (1) foreign language instruction as an integral part of the school system, (2) close articulation vertically and horizontally, (3) teachers with an adequate command of the foreign language or whose background in the foreign language is sufficiently recent so they can be helped to perform adequately without ponderous efforts, (4) enough foreign language specialists who presence can be felt, (5) an organized program, (6) suitable materials, (7) the support of administration and other teachers, (8) cooperation of junior and senior high teachers.

Once a decision has been made to implement FLES, one will encounter the problem of deciding how many languages and which language to include. There will be the question of whether the instruction should be required or elective or selective. Opinion is still divided as to which children should be permitted to study foreign languages. There is strong sentiment for making it a required subject through grade six. From grade seven on it would be a matter of individual choice. Two reasons expressed by the proponents of this idea are (1) the general benefits derived from foreign language learning, and (2) the ease with which it can be implemented in the present situation of the self-contained classroom of elementary education. Another fairly powerful movement believes that foreign language study should be elective, a matter of individual preference. The process of selecting students for FLES programs, which was quite popular when FLES was first begun, has faded from the scene. In addition, difficulties concerning transfer students will arise. Again, the answers to these questions will be determined by the realities of the local situation.

When no program at all exists, the solutions to these problems will be a less complicated process and the choice of direction quite free of restrictions. If a program is already operating in the upper grades, then the picture is quite different. Decision making in that situation must be influenced by what is already taking place. Ideally, all of the languages being offered in the upper grades should be offered in the lower grades, expecially from grade seven. Where this is not practical the language chosen should be the one with the strongest program through grade twelve.

In long sequences such as the two mentioned, allowances must be made for several starting points. This policy will often eliminate the problem of the transfer student, but more important, can be used to take individual differences into account. For example, in an optimum K-12 program, beginning points favorably situated along the way might be grades 3,5,7,9. In this set-up, one could remove individuals from their grade level and place them in a beginning foreign language group where age differences would be of little consequence. We state grade nine as the last starting point because the minimum sequence that any system should entertain is a four year sequence which is essential in order to accomplish worthwhile results.

For those willing to implement FLES, but for whom resources prevent such an early start, grades 4,5, or 6 have been considered good places to begin but not, as has been said, the optimum or the ideal. In this type of implementation, other starting points must also be planned. When discussing the beginning places of foreign language study another essential consideration comes to mind. The higher the grade level in which the program starts, the older the student; therefore, choice of materials, emphasis of approach, techniques and all the other necessary elements of foreign language instruction must be influenced by this factor. The reason for this is that as the student develops in maturity, his point of view changes. Many changes take place in him which must be accounted for in any program of instruction. He acquired more skills with which to work, he is not the "tabula rasa" in language as some people would have us believe. He already possesses language; therefore, why not make use of these qualities to more efficiently and more quickly accomplish our end?

The last two kinds of sequences that would result in some notable accomplishment in foreign language proficiency are the 6 year sequence from grade 7 through grade 12 and the four year sequence from grade 9 through grade 12. In these situations other starting points must also be planned. An important item which has not been expressed but has been implied throughout, is that beginning students and those with foreign language experience (in the same language) should never be grouped together.

It must be noted that a number of systems have only three year sequences operating in some of the languages being taught there. In these programs, the priority of order of the four linguistic skills should be observed. Realistically it is realized that some compromise will necessarily take place and that this type of program will more than likely demand a more eclectic approach. It must be remembered that students at this level have other abilities that are valuable assets to language learning. Rather than operate as if they do not exist, the program should take advantage of these abilities and language skills already developed and utilize them to accelerate the process of learning. In any sequence, our approach, our materials, our techniques, and our rate of teaching must be determined by the age level with which we are dealing. That is, a program beginning languages in grade 4 or 5 is going to differ in many respects from a program beginning in grade 7 and will differ vastly from a beginning program in grade 9.

The success of any long sequence will depend quite heavily on how well the entire program is articulated.

ARTICULATION

One of the most important factors in the establishment and maintenance of a long sequence in foreign languages is articulation. It is a term frequently employed by people involved with foreign language programs and as frequently not really understood because of the instinctive urge to formalize definitions of our pedagogical terminology. Articulation is simply the proper placement of foreign language students in continuing classes. This becomes more complex, more difficult but especially urgent if the students come from one or more feeder schools. No one denies that the smooth transition of the student can be provided for in a well articulated program. And although our primary concern is only through grade twelve, it is essential for the welfare of our students, that we concern ourselves with college placement as well.

In order to complete the definition of this word articulation, it is necessary to add another dimension which is the matter of horizontal as well as vertical articulation. Most often the term has been limited to vertical articulation which encompasses the coordination of philosophy, materials and methods from level to level, from elementary to junior high to senior high and on to college and to universities. Too often neglected is what is called horizontal articulation, which is the coordination of foreign language instruction at designated grade levels within a school. Both vertical and horizontal articulation demand a common philosophy, methods, materials, languages offered and course content among all schools and all teachers involved in the foreign language program.

This concept has implications for both the feeder and the receiver school systems. The responsibility of the feeder school, quite simply, is to prepare its students to meet whatever lies ahead. This means that these systems must be cognizant not only of the types of programs into which their students will eventually matriculate, but the materials used, the approaches and the techniques. On the other hand, the receiver school must shoulder its burden of responsibility which is to plan, sufficiently in advance, programs that will meet the varying levels of achievement of incoming students. For its part then, the receiver school must know definitely what degree of proficiency has been attained by the incoming students and place them accordingly.

There are many explanations for the failure in too many instances to achieve a well-articulated foreign language sequence. Primarily the fault lies in the fact that human beings are involved. When there is only one teacher in the foreign language program this difficulty seldom arises. The moment there is more than one individual teaching foreign languages in a system, then articulation becomes a concern simply because the two do not communicate. They teach as though they do not belong in the same department. Very often junior high's and elementaries are left on their own to develop a program. Thus, they create a variety of instructional materials, methods, and techniques; most or all of which in no way relate with each other or with the programs of the schools to which their students are going. No thought is given to mutual objectives, nor to the type of program already operating in the receiver school. Frequent turn-over of foreign language teachers also reases havoc. Often the egotistical pride of building principals more concerned with their autonomy and their power, proves to be the culprits. Sometimes it is a case of misguided individuals who do not really understand language teaching and language learning and jump on every different bandwagon that appears on the horizon. These systems simply go ahead and implement foreign language courses that in no way relate to existing programs. Teachers on the same levels perform as individuals and there are often as many courses, objectives and philosophies as there are teachers.

The need for articulation should be focused on the most important individual in the educational process, the student. We must insure the smooth continuous progression in his achieving the goals as set forth by the foreign language program, in order to safeguard as much as possible success at each level. We know that there are vital contributions which organized sequential programs make to effective learning. In a well articulated program, each learning situation is provided with new features and content that force or at least may motivate the student to pay attention and thereby react intelligently. Otherwise, he simply repeats previously learned behavior without active or fruitful participation. And often this results in a degeneration of interest and motivation on the part of the student for a particular program. In addition, by continuing to build upon the solid foundation of a previous learning experience, each following sequence carries the student logically and in organized fashion to succeedingly higher and more complex levels of achievement in all of the skills. And if in each new learning experience there is incorporated review for previous learning, the amount of meaningful practice and satisfaction of basic concepts, skills and values is greatly extended and reinforced, thereby leading to greater permanence of the learning experiences. The beneficial aspect of these principles must never be minimized.

When articulation does not exist, it implies a lack of cooperation and coordination which in a majority of cases can be traced to non-existent or poor communication between personnel involved in foreign language teaching. There are some necessary elements that comprise communication which assist in fostering the ingredients required for articulation. These components are public relations, politicking and the art of gentle persuasion to bring the agnostics, the atheists and the fanatics into the fold.

This leads us to another important element and that is the creation of a supervisory position (to be filled with competent personnel) on a systemwide basis to synthesize foreign language instruction throughout the system. Decisions relative to the foreign language program should involve all personnel concerned, including guidance people. To foster this broad participation, the establishment of a foreign language program advisory group may be of great help. Actually what we are continually insisting is that there must be a common philosophy expressed, common objectives outlined, a common approach decided and common materials used. All of this should be accomplished by cooperative planning even to the extent of course content and sequences. Supervisory visits have to be made to assure that all of these are implemented without damaging variation. Visitations among the teachers themselves would also be an asset to articulation. In-service instruction such as meetings, workshops and demonstrations are needed to help new, beginning or inadequately prepared teachers. It may well alleviate problems of rapid turnover in teacher personnel. Courses of study in receiver schools should be planned and organized well in advance to fill the needs of incoming students.

In a capsule, articulation in foreign language program requires courses in junior and senior highs to accomodate students who have achieved successfully in FLES. They are never to be placed with beginners in any grade level. At senior high it means the creation and organization of courses into which students with various levels of preparation, within realistic limits, can be correctly placed. It screams for carefully planned coordination between FLES, secondary (7-12), and colleges or universities, through a frequent interchange of visits and information among foreign language teachers at all levels. And it means the selection of an over-all coordinator.

Until recently, the problem of articulation with the college has been neglected and yet it is very much in the domain of the responsibility of the high school teacher. We must be concerned with the placement of students in college and university courses for which they are prepared. The tool most often used for placing incoming freshman in the language area was some type of achievement test. Lately, the MLA Proficiency Exam has become quite popular. Because of the time consumed in correcting the speaking and writing sections of the test, these parts are often avoided. And although there is some transfer of learning between the skills, the results obtained in such situations cannot be completely valid. A fairly recent trend wherever feasible, has been to introduce a liaison position between the high schools and the colleges. This has been especially so in the area of foreign language student teacher programs. The person in this capacity operates out of both frameworks and his task is to coordinate activities. Here again the problem is the practical implementation of an excellent concept through a wide geographical region. Such an idea, it seems would work well within certain limitations imposed by distance. Some colleges and universities are also utilizing the interview to determine student achievement for placement. A difficulty here is the danger of an overly-subjective judgment being formulated. People in general concur, however, that the most valid and desirable criterion for placement comes from the classroom teacher. Once more the practical impossibility of wide implementation has made the utilization of teacher recommendations extremely limited. Regardless, there are means to achieve proper articulation beyond grade 12 and the people who play essential roles in the secondary school foreign language program must be aware of them and actually be engaged in the process of placement. One must always remember that the object of our instruction is the individual sitting before us in our classes and that everything that affects his well-being and development must concern us, the teachers.

A CASE STUDY FOR ARTICULATION: INADEQUACIES AND PROBLEMS

In this district the foreign language program is initiated for one language (Spanish) at the fourth grade level in the elementary school. The FLES program involves all the children at the fourth, fifth and sixth grades. Television is used twice a week for a 15 minute televised program. A visiting specialist for each level comes to every classroom twice a week for 15 minutes. At the end of the sixth grade, children may elect to continue their study of this language at the junior high school. Achievement is also considered in counselling the continuing student.

However, some definite problems are encountered. The televised program is viewed one grade level above that for which it was intended, planned and organized. That is, the third graders televised lesson is watched by the children of the fourth grade. Boredom is noticed at the fifth grade level because of the repetitive format. Much drill via the television seems to cause disinterest on the part of the viewing children. Although these materials used on the TV program are linguistically sound they are not integrated with the junior high foreign language program. A sporadic lack of cooperation from the total district staff in viewing the televised programs with the children, hinders the total integrated learning process among the children.

At the junior high level only the above language is taught at the seventh and eighth grades. No credit toward high school language requirement is given for these grades. Yet, home economics classes receive credit, which draws eighth grade students away from continuing their language study. No beginning classes are started at these grades, so a transfer student must wait until the ninth grade to initiate his language study. An additional language may be started at the ninth grade for the FLES student, or he may elect to continue the language he began in the elementary school. There is no real articulation of material with the FLES program because a variety of audio-lingual texts are used in these grades. At the ninth grade the FLES students join the ALM course at the tenth lesson. Inadequate teacher training in the use of ALM is also a problem.

The senior high uses the ALM. At the tenth grade one may start a foreign language study or continue from his junior high course and thereby receive a needed second credit toward high school graduation and satisfaction of college entrance requirement. A disadvantage is easily seen in the lack of provision for maintenance of study for this student through the eleventh and twelvth grades.

The following suggestions come from our committee as a practical exercise in the application of our experience and theories. It is very obvious that it is one thing to give solutions, and quite another to have them accepted, implemented, or be valid.

It is suggested that the TV program be scrapped and that the adoption of some other materials for the FLES area that would lead into the first level of ALM at the junior high be considered.

If this is not possible, then in order to gain a longer sequence and bring the TV materials in line with the planned grade levels, the TV sequence could begin at the third grade and the ALM materials moved into the sixth grade. One effective solution to scheduling is to install a TV cable which has the potential of carrying twenty-one channels and of improving reception. With the cable, consideration could be given to teaching ALM to the sixth grade in this manner if teachers are not available. The cable will not guarantee trouble-free reception, but it will be better than through the air.

It must be noted that student disinterest caused by using the same teacher and the same approach for two grade levels will not be remedied by placing the beginning of the program in grade three, although it is possible that the younger students might accept this situation more readily. It would seem that the best solution, other than rejecting the program completely, might be to re-write the material and to employ another teacher.

Monotonous, repetitive drill is not well-accepted. With younger children especially, drills must be varied constantly and made palatable through games. This requires a skilled classroom teacher and very likely cannot be done via television.

Present materials should be eliminated from the program in the junior high and replaced with ALM texts. The first level could begin in the seventh grade and the eighth graders could begin with the unit that best matches their achievement at the end of grade seven. This will cause problems at the ninth grade and in high school for a time but they should improve.

Another possible solution to the junior high situation is to phase out the present materials by degrees. It might possibly work out better if the existing program is not interrupted except at those points where initial changes must take place. Consideration should also be given to bring French and German down to grade seven. In all cases, the four levels of ALM should be the heart of the program.

Maintenance courses must then be developed for grades eleven and twelve or from wherever the fourth level of the materials is completed. Extensive readings in many subject areas can be accomplished. The interest of the student should be the primary guide in the election of reading texts. Translation of English works have proved popular and effective. Activities to maintain the listening and the speaking skills must also be included and attention given to writing.

If the administration does not permit a regular class, then directed reading and meeting with the teacher once a week or so on some other formal or informal basis could prove practical. Foreign movies, dinners at foreign restaurants, plays, and other foreign language activities can be used to maintain student interest and foreign language skills.

The lack of cooperation is typical of any situation utilizing TV presentations or visiting specialists in FLES. Ways to remedy inadequate teacher preparation must be planned and implemented. No amount of authority or cajoling will work. The teacher must be persuaded and in some cases this persuasion may have to be pointed. Personal contact, workshops, in-service training during the school year or in the summer are activities to accomplish this. Attendance at NDEA Institutes for teachers of FLES helps tremendously. Where the teacher cannot qualify because of a language requirement, something may be worked out with a cooperating college under the Office of Economic Opportunity programs to take courses.

For the workshops or in-service training, one could use the best teacher to give demonstrations. In this situation the utilization of the microteaching technique, where teachers are not used as students, might be well worth a try. Publishing companies also have consultants available who will demonstrate use of their materials and help with in-service programs.

Reasonable goals must be set for each year of study so that when students arrive at succeeding levels their placement is not a difficult confused problem. People at the upper levels must be convinced that incoming students must be placed with others who have achieved a like amount, not make them start at the beginning once again. Here grouping or tracking would help solve the problem. The various tracks can be consolidated to some degree at the upper levels of foreign language instruction

The problem of not receiving credit in the junior high is common to most districts. All concerned must be reminded that other subjects do not give credit either. The problem of home economics giving credit should be taken up with the state department. It would also appear that counselors in this situation are still thinking in terms of a two year language sequence simply to fulfill college admission requirements. If they would concern themselves more with getting students to follow long sequences to master the language instead, the problem would necessarily disappear.

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ORGANIZATION FOR COMMUNICATION

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ORGANIZATION FOR COMMUNICATION

INTRODUCTION

Communication is the lifeblood of the foreign language profession. This concept has been so obvious that the profession may fail to realize fully the important implication in the word "communication." In the past, formal organizations have been established to serve as lines of communication among the many members of what is a multi-faceted profession. The Committee, however, felt dissatisfied in some ways with the present functioning of such organizations, primarily because of the lack of two-way communication and also because the very formality of their journals precludes the kind of specific help which FL supervisors need to solve their problems. Consequently, in an effort to find a way of organizing for effective and informal communication among FL supervisors, the Committee (1) established criteria for membership; (2) listed objectives; (3) discussed less formal organizations with two participants who are members of such groups; (4) discarded the idea of initiating a formal organization; and (5) communicated personally with every participant regarding his supervisory title, the extent of the FL program for which he is responsible, and the percentage of released time he has for supervisory duties.

After much deliberation, the Committee arrived at what it believes could be a solution to the problem of organizing for effective communication. Because this solution represented the thinking of only three persons, however, the Committee decided to present the problem to the entire Institute. The presentation was not to include the Committee's thinking concerning a tentative solution with the hope that the ideas of the entire group might produce a superior solution.

FIRST PRESENTATION

We explained the rationale for the Committee's project: that the meaningful, interpersonel communication initiated by the Institute should be maintained after the Institute has officially closed and participants have gone their separate ways; that a means should be sought for participants to continue communicating about mutual problems, sharing a wealth of ideas, sharpening perspectives both individually and collectively, seeking useful information and supporting one another in an effort to improve the quality and status of FL supervision.

The criteria originally written by the Committee to serve as determiners for membership eligibility were:

1. Exercise responsibility for structuring FL programs through curriculum development and scheduling
2. Share responsibility for employment and evaluation of personnel
3. Spend at least 50% of a normal school day in supervisory and/or administrative activities
4. Be a certified FL teacher with major preparation in at least one FL

The group was informed that, because the Committee questioned the validity of criterion number 3, a survey of all the participants had been conducted by the members of the Committee. The following are the results of the survey pertaining to the question of released time (RT). The middle columns give the number of participants in each of three areas of supervision:

% RT	K-6	6/7-12	K-12	Total
76-100	2	10	2	14
51-75	2	6	1	9
26-50	0	6	1	7
0-25	0	13	2	15

The import of such wide disparity, ranging all the way from no released time to 100% released time, was pointed out to the group. The Committee's eligibility criterion regarding released time would have automatically eliminated communication with nearly half of the participants, a group which we consier too unusual and too high-powered to be divided by one such criterion. Whether the aforementioned criteria should become goals was left to the entire participant group for discussion.

We next apprised the group of a greater problem which the Committee had faced: How could we organize a workable structure for communication--one which would overcome the barriers of time and distance? To attempt a formal organization--based on terms such as "constitution," "by-laws," "elections," "officers," "dues," "meetings," "journal"--would be futile. Although we were seriously questioning the validity of a traditional structure, we had not yet arrived at an alternative.

In attempting to discover some new but workable form of organization, the Committee reconsidered the thoughts of some of the Institute lecturers.

> Change is bound to occur. Are we prepared to accept change that is forced on us? Or are we prepared to help form the change?
>
> \- - - - - - - - - -
>
> The supervisor has got to step back and look at things from the bigger viewpoint. We can't afford the luxury of the mistakes of 1958 to 1962. Supervisors must take the bull by the horns and solve basic problems.
>
> \- Paquette
>
> A competitive spirit dominates our society with a maximum of freedom and a minimum of coercion, but our system does coerce improvement.
>
> \- - - - - - - - - -
>
> All changes have to be managed. Translating thought to action has to be managed.
>
> \- - - - - - - - - -
>
> How a leader sees himself as carrying out his role is the best index of how a leader discharges his function.
>
> \- - - - - - - - - -
>
> Among the qualities of an effective leader are the ability to communicate and a sense of being productive, almost complusively so.
>
> \- - - - - - - - - -
>
> Causative thinking achieves results we have in mind. Thinking pro-actively and pro-spectively shapes the environment.
>
> \- Burns

These thoughts seemed to synthesize the need and demand for action in communication and communication in action, with focus on leadership in foreign language teaching.

The best and most effective action occurs within the context of the principles of democracy. Communications can either be set up within a structured framework or can come with the spontaneity of personal commitment. In the opinion of the Committee, too many people have grown accustomed to a line-and-staff, authoritarian approach which develops passivity and, sometimes, resentment.

The question which had deeply concerned the Committee was presented: Is there another way to form a group which will be vigorous, helpful, and involving every member?

Whatever such an organization might be, it would have to have a pay-off value which would merit the continued enthusiastic support of those sincerely interested.

Tentative objectives which the Committee felt such an organization might achieve were proposed to the participants:

1. To strengthen the position of the supervisor within his own district
2. To help supervisors secure adequate released time for supervisory activities
3. To exchange information about
    - curriculum activities
    - prospective personnel
    - materials and equipment
    - methods and techniques
    - quality of FL training in lesser-known colleges
    - evaluation of commercially available tests
    - meetings of all types, and ideas that evolve from them
4. To recruit resource persons to contribute to our knowledge

At this point, the Committee invited the entire group to become involved in thinking through the problem.

The participants were divided into five buzz groups. They were asked to consider how they believed effective communication might be organized, keeping in mind the motto proposed by the Committee, "INTER PARES" (among equals), and the Committee's philosophy of personal commitment. As an aid to the discussion, participants were handed a list of the Committee's proposed criteria and objectives. Participants were asked to avoid the terms which are commonly associated with formal organizations. At the end of 15 minutes, brief reports were given by the five recorders. These were followed by large-group reaction and questions concerning issues brought out in the group reports.

In the second 15-minute buzz session the leader and recorder assignments were reversed. Two groups were to deal with the modification of objectives, two groups were to consider the question of criteria versus goals, and one group was asked to discuss the method of organization. The written reports from the two buzz sessions were given to the Committee.

FOLLOW-UP OF THE FIRST PRESENTATION

In an effort to identify the direction of the group's thinking, the Committee examined three forms of feedback from the presentation: (1) the tape recording of oral reports by recorders of the first buzz session, (2) notes taken by Committee members during the large-group discussion, and (3) the written reports given to the Committee at the end of the presentation.[1]

A careful appraisal of the group's reactions resulted in the following conclusions by the Committee:

1. Criteria
   a) That criteria number 1, 2, and 4 were valid and desirable, but should not be restrictive as to eligibility for membership
   b) That criterion number 3 should be eliminated as a criterion and be regarded, rather, as a short-term goal
2. Objectives
   a) That although there was doubt concerning the validity of objective number 1, the Committee is of the opinion that "the position can be strengthened by strengthening the man."
   b) That objectives numbered 2, 3, and 4 should be reevaluated by the Committee
3. Means of Communication
   a) That means suggested for communication followed two divergent directions: one toward direct and informal communication by mail and telephone, the other toward communication within the structure of formal organizations already in existence
   b) That any organization resulting from this Institute should: (1) include last year's Institute group, and (2) communicate with and offer active support to existing organizations, particularly NCSSFL and ACTFL

The varied directions of the group's thinking led the Committee to explore further possible sources of feedback. A Committee member met with seven of the ten leaders/recorders for an informal lunch discussion.[2] These seven were asked to interpret the feeling of the five buzz groups which they represented. Their reactions were widely divergent, not only between groups but also between members of the same group. The Committee was unable to determine whether their statements represented their personal viewpoints or were clearly indicative of the buzz groups' thinking.

The inconclusive results from the meeting with the leaders/recorders led the Committee to pose two questions to the Staff: (1) Can each of you, individually, estimate the percentage of your buzz group who seemed to make an earnest attempt to break with tradition?, and (2) Do you feel that there was sufficient evidence of curiousity aroused by the Committee's presentation to merit a further, brief presentation which would be more detailed? The Staff reported: (1) that "the term'break with tradition' was too vague to form a basis for evaluating participant group attitude and position," and (2) that the first presentation called for a follow-up to clarify the Committee's position.

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[1] The three forms of feedback are summarized in Appendices A, B, and C.

[2] For a report of this discussion, see Appendix D.

SECOND PRESENTATION

The Committee reviewed the five sources of feedback and commented briefly on their multi-directional nature. In the absence of an immediately applicable solution from the total group and in order to serve that part of the group interest in continuing the kind of communication initiated at this Institute, the Committee's original solution was presented.

We proposed that an informal organization be formed of only those participants who are sufficiently interested in the philosophy of personal commitment to become involved in an exchange of ideas and information. Such exchange is to be effected in the following manner: each member is expected to duplicate his communications, making as many copies as there are members, and mailing a copy to each member. His "dues" will be in the form of postage. Evidence of personal commitment, necessary for sustaining membership in INTER PARES, will be provided by at least two written communications to all other members in the course of the school year. Further direct and informal contact with individual members will, of course, be welcome at all times.

The Committee suggested that an initial "communications guide" be prepared which would list topics of probable interest to fellow members. The purpose of such a list would be simply to suggest interesting items for communication. New topics could be added by any member at any time.

The Committee identified the need for a librarian to keep a record of all communications and to revise the membership list each year. One Committee member volunteered to take the initial responsibility.

In conclusion, two points were re-emphasized: (1) it is vitally important that communication be kept open and encouraged by informality, and (2) INTER PARES intends that its members should serve existing formal organizations by becoming as well-informed as possible.

At this point, the Committee requested that all participants sincerely interested in implementing the Commitee's proposal indicate that interest by submitting their names, addresses, and telephone numbers.

FOLLOW-UP OF THE SECOND PRESENTATION

A tally of the cards returned to the Committee revealed that out of an Institute of 51 persons--45 participants and 6 staff members--19 participants and one staff member expressed their desire to become involved in the organization to be known as INTER PARES. Of the total male contingent of the Institute, 48% have joined; of the female, 22%. The membership represents thirteen states and one foreign country.[3] Analysis of the membership by geographical area within the United States shows that 61% of the participants from the West joined, 18% of those from the Midwest, and 19% of those from the East.

Prior to the close of the Institute, a meeting of the 20 members will be held for two purposes: (1) to distribute the membership list and a communications guide, and (2) to pose certain questions which, in the Committee's opinion, can best be answered by consensus among the members. The questions to be considered fall into three categories:

1. Recruiting additional members
    a) Under what conditions should last year's participants be included in the organization?
    b) What criteria should be set for inviting into the organization non-Institute FL supervisors?
2. Determining objectives
    a) Should the objectives as originally proposed be accepted or modified?
3. Communicating with formal organizations
    a) What kind of communication should be sent to Percy Fearing, President of the NCSSFL?
    b) Should a communication be sent to ACTFL in time for the December conference?

From this point on, INTER PARES will take its direction and development from the personal commitment and involvement of its members.

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[3] For the geographical distribution of membership, see Appendix E.

APPENDIX A

SYNTHESIS OF NOTES FROM THE LARGE-GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Consider combining with last year's Institute group to strengthen the organization already initiated by them.
2. Try to maintain the personal contact initiated in this Institute.
3. Use the formal structure inherent in the organizational terms which were forbidden.
4. Hold local meetings to talk to one another, not to listen to guest speakers.
5. Work through already existing organizations at the local level.
6. Include state supervisors in any organization we may form.
7. Organize formally on a national basis, possibly through ACTFL.

APPENDIX B

EXCERPTS FROM THE ORAL REPORTS

1. Any vehicle of communication must assume the need for a small group of active organizers and a formalized structure.
2. The number of participants and of the states which they represent is too small to be effective; communication must be effected through existing publications.
3. Select regional representatives to collate ideas, which would then be distributed in a newsletter.
4. Combine with last year's Institute group.
5. Initiate a round-robin letter or tape (mentioned by three recorders).
6. Gather informally at regional conferences.
7. Do we take too much for granted when we talk about personal commitment?

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF THE WRITTEN REPORTS FROM THE FIVE BUZZ SESSION GROUPS

1. Regarding means of communication
   a) Three groups mentioned a round-robin letter or tape; two, a newsletter; one, a telegram; and one, informal correspondence on a one-to-one basis.
   b) Three groups suggested using already existing national organizations; two, using already existing local organizations. Two groups suggested that participants gather informally on a regional basis; one, that we establish a formal organization. One group did not record any means of communication.

2. Regarding the question of goals versus criteria
   Criterion no. 1: Four groups did not comment; one group stated that this criterion is determined locally.
   Criterion no. 2: Two groups agreed that this should be a criterion, one group disagreed, one group stated that this is determined locally, one group did not comment.
   Criterion no. 3: One group agreed that this should be a criterion, two groups disagreed, two groups did not comment.
   Criterion no. 4: Two groups agreed that this should be a criterion, one group disagreed, two groups did not comment.
   One group commented: "Criteria should be inclusive, not exclusive." [sic]
3. Regarding objectives
   Objective no. 1: Three groups did not comment, one voted to eliminate this objective, one stated that this objective must be handled by a recognized national organization. There was one minority opinion: that in the participant's state the position can be strengthened by strengthening the man.
   Objective no. 2: Three groups did not comment, one voted to eliminate this objective, one stated that this objective must be handled by a local organization.
   Objective no. 3: Three groups did not comment, one voted to eliminate this objective, one stated that this objective must be handled on a local basis.
   Objective no. 4: Three groups did not comment, one voted to eliminate this objective, one called it a "laudable aim" but questioned how it could be effected.

APPENDIX D

REPORT OF THE INFORMAL LUNCH DISCUSSION WITH LEADERS/RECORDERS

No. of Leaders/Recorders and Buzz Group Color:	Reactions:
1 Red	Completely receptive to the ideas of personal commitment and informal organization.
1 Yellow 1 Blue	Sympathetic toward the proposed objectives but restricted their implementation to a local, state, or regional basis.
1 Pink	Thought that communication would be restricted by time, cost, and local administration; therefore necessitates a formal structure.
1 Red 1 Blue 1 Green	Rejected the whole idea as unworkable.

APPENDIX E

DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIP BY INDIVIDUAL STATES

State:	No. of Members:
Texas	3
Arizona	2
California	2
New Jersey	2
Washington	2
Colorado	1
Hawaii	1
Idaho	1
Illinois	1
Maryland	1
Minnesota	1
New Mexico	1
Oregon	1
The U. S. of Brazil	1

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Marcel Robichaud, Chairman, Iowa
Salvador Alvarez, Texas
Dorothy Chester, Idaho
Carrie Fuselier, Colorado
Marion LeFevre, Washington
Cenobio Macías, Washington
Robert Riggs, Washington
Thomas Smith, Maryland

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

DEFINITION: PHILOSOPHY, GUIDELINES

In-service education is the task of supervision which seeks to bring about improvements in education by changing in constructive ways the behavioral patterns of people. It is truly a task directed toward changing teaching and administrative personnel in order that, working cooperatively, they might improve significantly the learning experiences of students.

In-service education programs are directed (1) to the professional growth of teachers, (2) to the development of their professional skills, and (3) to the broadening of their understanding. Functional in-service programs attempt to aid, encourage, and work for this growth. As the teacher's performance improves, the instructional program will reflect improvement. A belief such as this one focuses in-service education directly upon the teacher's professional growth.

An effective in-service education program should be a direct outgrowth of cooperative effort. Administrative personnel should provide many opportunities for teachers to work on problems which they meet and which prove to be stumbling blocks in meeting their professional responsibilities. In order to determine the needs and concerns of the staff, the administrative and supervisory personnel may conduct a survey. From this cooperative effort and its resultant activities, the teachers may find satisfactory solutions to their problems and may return to their classrooms better teachers, much more confident and more secure in both knowledge and skill.

The strength of in-service education lies in the fact that constructive and creative ideas for the solution of any of the problems may originate with any staff member. The shared problem-solving process of working for the improvement of an educational program is in-service education.

The leadership staff of an effective in-service program should seek to maintain the following conditions:

1. They should create an atmosphere of warmth, mutual acceptance, and "belongingness"--a wholesome emotional climate.
2. They should generate feelings of equality and an appreciation of the value of the individual.

3. They should provide proper orientation for new members.
4. They should involve the entire group in selecting aspects of mutual problems on which they wish to concentrate.
5. They should recognize, tolerate, and respect individual differences--in so doing, encouraging each to develop his unique skills.
6. They should encourage interaction with other disciplines within the curriculum.
7. They should share all plans for change and development.
8. They should develop and maintain the concept that there can be no single pattern for a worthwhile in-service education program. Continuous evaluation, new planning, and constructive action must go on.
9. They should share with their teachers the realization that stimulus and growth evolve only from a program that is marked by a constant search on the part of both teachers and leaders for judicious answers to such questions as the following:
    - What is important for us to learn?
    - How should we organize our forces to get the job done?
    - Where can we go for our needed information?
    - How well have we achieved what we set out to do?
    - What should we do with what we have learned?
    - How can we evaluate what we do?
10. They should bear in mind that the two elements which are fundamental to the in-service education of every teacher are an understanding of the nature of human growth and learning and an understanding of the nature of the social order.

The guidelines for cooperative organization in in-service education programs are especially important because there are many basic problems to be met in making these programs of greater value to teachers. The techniques used should be in harmony with sound principles of learning. The guidelines can be stated as follows:

1. Programs of in-service education should direct attention to the tasks involved in improving the learning experiences of students.
2. Programs of in-service education should be flexible and should provide for a wide and rich variety of activities.
3. The programs of in-service education should be planned, developed, and evaluated by means of cooperative staff activity.
4. In-service education should lead to positive action in the form of improved practices.
5. Programs of in-service education merit specially scheduled time.
6. Programs of in-service education should be considered an integral part of the total school program.
7. Administrative support and leadership are vital factors in an in-service education program.

NEEDS, OBJECTIVES, AND MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

Once the teachers have assembled and identified areas for professional improvement, the administrative and supervisory personnel can use these as focuses for in-service education programs. The problems are then placed in order of priority, both for short-range and long-range goals.

Four possible categories under which professional needs based upon objectives may be grouped are:

I. Professionalism
  A. Developing an esprit de corps--cohesiveness
  B. Instilling pride in teacher's job
  C. Participating actively in professional organizations
II. Communication
  A. Establishing communication lines within the profession and in the community
  B. Developing a raison d'etrê for the place of foreign languages in the curriculum, establishing general goals and common values
  C. Coordinating and articulating foreign language programs
  D. Formulating and writing foreign language curriculum guides and handbooks
III. Methodology
  A. Developing in teachers an awareness of the values which can accrue from the effective utilization of the interdisciplinary approach
  B. Promoting a comprehensive approach to the teaching of foreign languages
  C. Acquainting teachers with different teaching media and instructional materials
IV. Proficiency
  A. Developing teachers' proficiency in language
  B. Developing in the teacher an understanding of the cultural and cross-cultural concepts

The specific needs and objectives of a school will determine the order of importance in which the above-mentioned are ranked.

In order to stimulate teacher interest and to assure a feeling of satisfaction and accomplishment on the part of the teacher, the in-service education program should utilize the following motivational factors:

I. Intrinsic
  A. Self-evaluation
  B. Interest in self-improvement
  C. Increased confidence in meeting needs of pupils
II. Extrinsic
  A. Accumulation of credits for meeting certification requirements
  B. Financial compensation for time invested and/or credits earned
  C. Released time for teachers
  D. Recognition within the profession and the community

IMPLEMENTATION OF IN-SERVICE OBJECTIVES

Planning for an in-service program must be done cooperatively by all groups concerned. In some cases this requires the selection of a representative planning or steering committee. This should follow discussions held among the staff which have led to a collective decision to plan and carry out an in-service education program. The selection of the planning committee should be carried out in the most democratic manner possible in order to assure genuine representation of the concerns of the total staff and maximum acceptance of its work.

Adequate time must be allowed for the planning committee to function since it must carry on many deliberations and perform many tasks in the preparation of the various aspects of the program. Many weeks or months are usually necessary for a thorough job.

There must be a commitment to the program on the part of the administration in order to assure adequate financing of the entire effort.

The planning committee has at its disposal various organizational arrangements within which many different activities may take place. Those arrangements which seem most appropriate for a foreign language department in-service education program designed to serve the needs of the majority of the staff are the following:

1. The workshop: A framework within which several practical problems are emphasized and solutions are sought through processes which require the active involvement of all the participants. Such topics as test composition, audio-visual teaching techniques, and drill techniques may be studied, discussed, and practiced.
2. The conference: A series of events usually scheduled over several days with speakers who attempt to inform, to stimulate curiosity, and to inspire the pursuit of further inquiry and action to bring about improvements in teaching. Large groups may attend. Small group discussions may provoke further questions. For example, speakers may report on the findings of new research and comment on their implications for instruction.
3. The study group: Generally a small group with limited objectives and sometimes with structered membership, perhaps including members of the community. This is usually more a deliberative and recommending body than it is an action group. Examples of its work might include deciding whether a FLES program should be undertaken, who should be permitted to study a foreign language, and other policy matters.
4. The project group: An organ designed to carry to completion a certain action project. The size and the composition of its membership depend upon the nature and complexity of the task to be performed

> and the number of activities necessary to complete it. Examples of projects appropriate to this type of structure would be the creation of certain needed instructional materials, research on and selection of language laboratory equipment and installation arrangements, and textbook evaluation and adoption processes.

There exists a wide variety of distinctive activities which can be carried on within these different organizational arrangements. Selections must be made from among them to carry out the chosen arrangement. Harris lists the following:[1]

Brainstorming
Buzz session
Committee
Demonstration
Directed practice
Discussion
Exhibit
Field trip
Film or TV presentation
Firsthand experience
Group therapy
Structured interview (investigative)
Focused interview (expository)
Non-directive interview (cathartic)
Inter-visitation
Laboratory
Lecture
Meeting
Observation
Panel
Reading
Role-playing
Social
Tape-recording
Testing
Writing

Harris gives an excellent discussion of these various activities. A partial example is the following:

> Brainstorming: This acivity has a unique value in work done with verbal contributions elicited from participants to secure the greatest number of ideas on a given problem in the shortest possible time. Brainstorming is conducted within the structure of four basic rules:
>
> 1. Quantity of ideas is desired, the more ideas, the better.
> 2. Adverse criticism of anyone's ideas is taboo. Every idea is worthy to be listed.
> 3. Freewheeling is welcomed and encouraged. No idea is too visionary to consider.
> 4. Combinations and improvements of ideas are sought. One person's idea may be developed or supplemented by another person.[2]

Whichever organizational arrangement is selected, the first activity planned to be carried on within it should be a socializing one in order to establish good personal relationships among all the participants. The time selected for the program should be as convenient as possible. Whether attendance should be voluntary or mandatory must be decided by the administration on the basis of several criteria, including how vital the learnings and skills sought are judged to be for each teacher, how they affect articulation for the student, whether released time is granted, and others.

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[1] Ben Harris, SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOR IN EDUCATION, p. 79.
[2] Ibid.

EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Every successful program of in-service training emphasizes, among other things, continuous and participatory evaluation. Since evaluation is the sustained, systematic inquiry into the "why?", "what?", "how well?" and "what next?" of supervision, the criteria for that evaluation must be determined by the cooperative effort of all concerned.

Mildred Swearingen in her book SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION defines criteria as "agreed-upon statements of expectation by which excellence is to be judged." Evaluation then may be regarded as a process for ascertaining how well the consciously sought values are being developed and for gaining data for the intelligent re-setting of immediate goals and the choosing of procedures.

Valid criteria for evaluating a program of in-service education might be based on the following questions:

1. Is the program based on the needs which the teachers have expressed?
2. Is it practical?
3. Are consultants called in as the need arises?
4. Is the program challenging and engaging?
5. Does it respect individuality?
6. Does it improve the quality of living and learning among teachers and students?
7. Does it raise morale and lift aspirations?
8. Does it promote concern for the development of creative potentialities in both students and teachers?
9. Does it develop and mature the value judgments of teachers?
10. Does it give teachers a sense of professional growth and adequacy?
11. Is the program based on the needs of the child in his total community?
12. Does the program result in improved educational experiences for the pupils?

Evaluation must be continuous and participatory. It may be formal or informal, written or oral.

Persons responsible for planning in-service education programs must devise ways of recording and grouping data and must make this information available. The communication of this information and the use made of it in planning future programs of in-service training are of utmost importance.

CONCLUSION

There is no single pattern for a good in-service education program. However, there are certain guidelines which are always valid for organizing one. A creative program is designed to meet the needs of the situation. It takes many carefully selected, well-executed activities to produce an effective program. Continuous evaluation, continued planning, and constructive action must go on. These processes of planning, developing, implementing, and evaluating must involve all those who are concerned with the teaching act. Out of this involvement will emerge potential leaders whose capabilities have been recognized and will be utilized. The ultimate goal of a meaningful in-service education program is the improved educational experiences of the youth of the community.

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ADDENDUM

Mr. Wallace G. Klein, staff member of the Institute, made an oral presentation on, "The Right Environment for In-Service Training". At the conclusion of Mr. Klein's lecture the In-Service Committee presented a symposium and made practical use of an in-service activity called brainstorming. The participants were asked to form small groups and to produce in 5 minutes as many ideas as possible on the following question: Given unlimited resources, what innovative practices could you undertake to improve and to enrich your foreign language program? At the end of this period, a total of 134 ideas were received. The following is a sampling:

1. professional library with work studios for teachers in each school
2. electronic classrooms and completely equipped language laboratories
3. scholarships for student travel
4. pool of native informants in areas
5. massive student exchange program
6. closed-circuit T.V.
7. video-tape and video-taping of foreign programs
8. sabbaticals at full pay
9. teachers paid for travel abroad
10. native foods in cafeterias
11. planned courses abroad for students accompanied by regular teachers
12. resource center in every foreign language
13. teaching other subjects in a foreign language

14. foreign language dining areas
15. well trained personnel and sufficient time for standardized testing
16. flexible scheduling
17. carpeted and air-conditioned schools
18. well trained laboratory technicians
19. library facilities in the classroom
20. spectograph for evaluation of pronunciation
21. psychiatric assistance for students with learning problems

THE RIGHT ENVIRONMENT FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

In a report, "Nurture of a First Class Faculty", in which the results of a survey of the teacher training practices of its schools were described, the National Association of Independent Schools states that the crucial point in helping teachers professionally is the climate of the school and that two aspects of supervision were still considered horrors: classroom visits and department meetings. But both "horrors" were welcomed if shown to be productive in purpose, that is if the purpose was to share approaches, explore new learning strategies, observe or discuss students in action.

There are any number of definitions of in-service training, and the committee will present at least one of them. Kimball Wiles says, "In-service education is an attempt to increase the competency of the present staff through courses, workshops, conferences, study groups, inter-school visitations, lectures, and staff improvement days." Mary Finochhiaro describes it as a school or community teacher-training plan that may include such activities as seminars, workshops, bulletins, television or films for individuals who are already teaching - to increase their competency or to bring them abreast of new developments. My own definition of in-service education is "growth" personal growth which has as its corollary, improvement. This growth can take place in many ways, but it is always most fruitful when it is self-motivated, self directed, self-sustained.

Another writer speaks of in-service education in a school system as "the intellectual atmosphere of the system". Is there actually anything that could be more indicative of the professional climate of a school system than the manner in which in-service education is carried on? It seems to me that in-service training is quite unlike other aspects of supervision, that is to say, it is in no way a form of snoopervision; it does not demand forms filled out, reports handed in, books counted, etc. It can be made to be and to be accepted as a means of helping. I can conceive of a supervisor's program of in-service training as a form of encouragement for individual teachers to map-out and follow a highly individualized plan of self-improvement. The individual nature of the plan in no way excludes group activities as one aspect of implementation of the program, and naturally the supervisor would do more than just encourage. He would suggest, advise, cooperate. But if teachers can be expected to individualize instruction for a hundred or more students each day, the supervisor can reasonably be expected to plan an in-service program to suit the requirements of a dozen or so teachers.

As the supervisor becomes informed about the many facets of in-service training and is increasingly sensitive to the needs of his staff, he is in a better position to tailor the in-service program to meet those needs. In-service training need not, perhaps should not, be confined to experiences that provide only academic growth. For some members of the staff the need may be for ability to work better with others. Involving such people in the planning of faculty recreation, retreats, camping trips may contribute to that kind of growth on their part and at the same time help draw the faculty together. Some teachers might be encouraged to participate in dramatic arts or sports as outlets for emotional tensions. And let us not forget that in-service training does not necessarily imply getting together for common experiences. Individual experiences of all kinds can be made use of in promoting in-service growth. Reading, attending conferences, inter-school visitations, independent study, and travel are certainly all part of professional development. Incidentally, if feasible, it might be advisable and interesting and a nice gesture if the supervisor would take the place of the teacher who is attending a conference or visiting another school.

In the Administrative Science Quarterly No. 4 of 1966, there is an interesting report with the lengthy title: "Teachers Sense of Power: Relation of Bureaucratization to Sense of Power Among Teachers", in which it is stated that a teacher's sense of power is related to his belief that he has some control over such things as what textbooks will be used in the classroom and to his feeling that he can find ways to get system-wide policies changed if he feels strongly enough about them. Teachers should be made to feel that group in-service meetings will enable them to carry out the suggestions on our board outside "Reflect upon your world, and, in concert with others, change it." Group in-service education should allow teachers to state problems, devise ways of seeking solutions, participate in decision-making, and accept responsibility for the outcome. The committee is going to be very specific in suggesting types of group in-service training, but I would remind you that such sessions are most profitable when centered on improving school program, on adapting a program to meet developments in learning, in preparation of materials of instruction, in reorganization of courses, revamping of grade schemes, promotion policies, in the study of individual children and the planning of meaningful experiences for them.

Faculty meetings or even department meetings make up only one aspect of in-service programs. Since they tend to be large group presentations, they may be useful in furnishing inspiration, in providing professional pep, in affording opportunities for talks by resource people. Smaller groups lend themselves to occasions for cooperative thinking, staff planning, interchange of ideas. Why not consider a discussion of a pertinent book - Wilga Rivers, Robert Lado, John Holt's WHY CHILDREN FAIL, De Cecco, and so on? No matter what the activity, the emphasis should be on teacher participation, not passive presence. Too much of the time we teachers have the impression that people talk at us and not with us.

One suggestion for in-service sessions is to identify the innovators on your staff and give them a chance to show what they can do. Someone has suggested that one tends to find innovators among the younger teachers, among those who seethe with unsatisfaction, among those who itch to teach differently. A worth-while in-service -- and an opportunity for innovators to let off steam -- might be developed something like this: a seminar is held on a given topic, giving rise to experiments that are outgrowths of the discussion; further seminars are arranged to consider the evidence of the experiments. Following that, demonstrations are given of the practices that have been perfected, and clinics are arranged as adjuncts to the demonstrations to develop skills and concepts of others on the staff. Since people grow as they try new things, this type of program should provide for growth on the part of those involved with the experimentation, and a chain reaction of change, growth, and improvement might carry on through the entire department.

I shall leave it to the committee to delineate further other types of in-service training, but I want to emphasize certain basic considerations as they have been stated by NEA Committee on TEPS (Teacher Education and Professional Standards).

1. Continuing Education is a career-long process of professional growth.
2. The principal responsibility for continuing development rests with the individual teacher.
3. Continuing education should be planned on an individual basis
4. Professional growth is achieved in a variety of ways, including, but not limited to formal study.

5. An environment conducive to personal and professional growth is essential. Such an environment would include such components as academic freedon, reasonable work load, opportunity for stimulating relationships with colleagues, adequate facilities and materials, a democratic atmosphere, and recognition of the value of diversity.

To persuade other people to accept new ideas, leaders need to cultivate openness to new experiences in themselves. In the ASCD Yearbook of 1964, James B. MacDonald makes this contribution in an article entitled "An Image of Man: The Learner Himself":

> To be open to life is the maximal condition for developing human potential. To be open in thought--fluent, flexible, and original; and open in effect - experiencing the potential feelings in an activity; and open in perception--meeting the potential stimuli in the world: these are the ways to maximum development of human potential.

Another suggestion is that of C. Gilbert Wrenn in an article "The Culturally Encapsulated Counselor", which appeared in the HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW in the Fall of 1962:

> Individuals should teach themselves to unlearn something each day. Each day we should take some fact which is no longer a fact and persuade ourselves that this should be dropped from our vocabulary and from our cumulative store of presumed knowledge....Each day we should question some social relationship which was not present when we were a child but is very present now. Each day we should question something that we believe but that other people of integrity may reject.

With such a concept of openness to new ideas himself, the supervisor is ready to show others the path.

Going back to my definition of in-service education as "growth", I feel that the supervisor can, by his own attitude and personal relationships with his staff lay the basis for the most fruitful rewards of in-service education, which, by its very nature is a matter of individual growth and development. The sensitive supervisor knows that the word "education" itself comes from the Latin "to lead out of" - to lead out of darkness, to lead out of a limited sense of things, to lead, not to push. Perhaps as sensitive supervisors you will agree with Andries Deinum of the Portland Center for Continuing Education that the "ultimate goal of all education, of all civilization, is a harmonious society consisting of autonomous, unsubmissive individuals...each having the stature of one".

I say, the right environment for in-service training allows and encourages each of us to work harmoniously toward the fullest expression of our highest stature.

FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING

Dwight Allen, Lecturer

Pat Dowling, Chairman, Ohio
Roy Bradbury, Massachusetts
Maxwell Gates, California
Ramón Huerta, New Mexico
Marion LeFevre, Washington
Helene Parent, New Jersey
Joyce Prante, Washington
Dave Teske, Illinois
Beth Waggoner, Hawaii
Wallace Klein, Advisor, Missouri

FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING

Innovations In Structure

In anticipation of the arrival of our guest lecturer, Dr. Dwight Allen, the committee deemed it advisable to present to the institute participants a preliminary report which would serve as an introduction to the man and to the general subject of flexible scheduling, as it is developed in the book "A New Design for High School Education Assuming a Flexible Schedule."

Flexible scheduling is a system based on modules of time and class size. (See Appendix A) The time may vary from ten to thirty minutes. The number of students may vary from a small group of fifteen or less to a large group of one hundred or more. This modular system utilizes more effectively the time and talents of teachers, the facilities of buildings, and student requests.

In this context, flexible scheduling concerns itself with the structuring of the school day.

Proposals for reorganizing the school day rest upon the following seven assumptions: (Bush and Allen, 1964. pp. 7,8)

1. High school is the period of schooling typically included in grades seven to twelve.
2. All students should have continuous, rigorous study in breadth and depth in all basic subject-matter fields throughout the six secondary school grades.
3. In each subject area several groups of students whose needs are sufficiently distinct to require a discreet program of studies can be identified.
4. Each subject, when properly taught, will include four basic types of instruction:
   a. Independent and individual study
   b. Small-group instruction
   c. Laboratory instruction
   d. Large-group instruction
5. Adequate instruction instruction in each subject-matter field requires senior teachers who are both well trained in their subject-matter field and highly skilled in teaching and who are assisted by less highly trained members of the instructional and supporting staff.

INNOVATIONS IN STRUCTURE
FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING

Guest Lecturer

Dwight W. Allen

Committee:

Pat Dowling, Chairman

Wallace Klein, Advisor

Roy Bradbury

Max Gates

Karen Harris

Marion LaFevre

Helene Parent

Joyce Prantl

Dave Teale

Ruth Waggoner

N D E A Foreign Language
Leadership Institute
C. W. S. C.
Ellensburg, Washington

Summer 1967

6. Class size, length of class meeting, and the number and spacing of classes ought to vary according to the nature of the subject, the type of instruction, and the level of ability and interest of pupils.
7. It is possible to obtain scheduling assistance through the use of data-processing equipment in order to implement a large degree of schedule flexibility.

Dr. Allen proposes that the entire curriculum can be thought of as an area to be scheduled. The area is the total time available times the total enrollment. This curriculum area is made up of sub-parts called modular units -- units of time, class size, and course structure. The units or mods of time should be the maximum amount of time - multiples of which will give the lengths desired for any instruction. The units of class size should be the minimum size desired for any instructional purpose. The smaller the mod unit the greater the flexibility, but also the greater the complexity and the perplexity. The arrangement of these mods and modular units within the total curriculum area gives us the course structure. The allocation of the total mods available for each subject matter field will be based upon requirements imposed upon the department, the consideration of the ability of the student population, the customs of the community, and the desires of the department itself as to what it wants to offer.

Thus, with the degree of flexibility allowed us by the allocation of such modules, we may encourage the consideration of various alternatives to traditional course structures, class sizes, the use of staff, the number and spacing of classes, and the total time to be allocated to any one discipline.

As evidence that "The grouping of students is as old as the school itself," (Bush and Allen, 1964. p. 13) the committee reviewed this century's shifting reactions to the concept of grouping along with the various kinds of grouping which educators have already experienced regarding age, alphabetizing, grade level, subject area, selection, ability, aptitude, and placement.

Dr. Allen's concept of grouping is by activity, based on his rationale that "Within any given course some activities are appropriate for a wide range of student abilities and interests, and other activities are appropriately reserved for students of more homogeneous selection." (Bush and Allen, 1964. p. 15) To understand the flexibility inherent in this in this concept, it is expedient to imagine a rectangular block in which the vertical dimension represents the total weekly time alloted to instruction and the horizontal dimension represents the total number of students enrolled in a particular level of instruction. Both the time and the student dimensions may be divided into a variety of patterns based on the kinds of activities needed within the instructional program (See Appendix B).

The important steps to develop such grouping by activity are:

1. to identify the various activities involved in the learning;
2. to divide the total weekly time allotment into portions suitable to each activity; and
3. to determine the size and kind of group that will function best within the type of activity.

The following are descriptions of each type of instruction: (Bush and Allen, 1964. pp. 35-39)

Independent study (IS) (by the student)

IS may include reading, writing, drill, research, conferences, memorization, working with teaching-machine programs or other automatic instructional devices. In some areas IS may be called "contractual study". The purposes of this type of instruction are to promote independence, to provide opportunity for study under optimum conditions, to provide opportunity for study of topics beyond the regular curriculum, and to permit maximum use of instructional resources.

Small group (SG) (fifteen or less)

In small group instruction the primary emphasis is on face-to-face contact and group interaction. The group must be of fifteen members or less so that all members may be able to interact. Small-group interaction provides opportunity for individual participation, for discussing ideas raised in large-group or laboratory discussion, for establishing close teacher-pupil relationships, and for testing effectiveness of large-group and laboratory instruction. The opportunity for developing student leadership in the small-group is enhanced.

Intermediate group (IG) will include from sixteen to thirty students. Its function will vary from that of a semi large-group to that of a small-group interaction.

Large group (LG) (over thirty)

Large-group instruction places primary emphasis on presenting materials with a minimum of interaction. Some examples of these are illustrated lectures by the teacher or a guest speaker, the making of assignments, testing, televised lessons, and motion pictures.

The purposes of having large-group instruction are these: to conserve teaching time; to improve the quality of the presentation; to make effective use of resource persons; to capitalize on special talents of staff; to make efficient use of motion picture, television, and other audio-visual aids; and to use equipment and facilities efficiently.

The teacher must help his audience to understand the complementary relationships and differences between large-group and small-group communication patterns.

Laboratory (Lab)

Laboratory instruction refers to specially equipped work and study areas which provide opportunities for students to work independently and in small groups. Such work will include practice and drill on subject matter which has previously been introduced in large group instruction. Examples of such work centers are libraries, music practice rooms, audio-lingual language rooms, reading-skills laboratories, science-research laboratories and machine shops.

Flexible scheduling has set forth an entirely new concept of the role of the high school teacher. This concept is one of the most exciting features of the "The New Design for High School Education." Surely there is no doubt that the image of the teacher and his role in the community today differ greatly from the image of the teacher of a century ago. Although the profession has come a long way from the little red school house, much remains to be done to create the career teacher envisioned by Dr. Allen.

In the plan for staff utilization under flexible scheduling, Dr. Allen develops the concept of a truly professional staff which blows the roof off the little red school house stereotype. By differentiating between supporting and professional help the career teacher is relieved of duties which formerly detracted from his direct relationship with the student. The advantages of this system of staff utilization are:

1. Teaching will be a professional career.
2. The most effective teachers will have contact with the most students.
3. The little red school house, characterized by orders from above, will be replaced by support from below.
4. Teachers' formal instruction time will be only a portion of the school day.
5. Teachers will have time to teach.

Approaches to flexible scheduling through developmental changes are illustrated by charts in Bush and Allen, chapter 6.

First of all, a standard schedule of six classes per day with each period having a duration of 55 minutes diagrammatically represents the modelling of the most popular current practice in America's secondary schools. Succeeding chargs show variations of block scheduling involving straight block, modified block, period addition; variations in rotation; and variable period lengths.

The experience of one school with flexible scheduling over a period of three years, showed that it was pretty hectic because of numerous overlappings of modular blocks, in which classes were scheduled to meet, for example three modules in the morning and two in the afternoon of the same day. Completely chaotic ISP (Independent Study Program) also resulted.

However, these initial hurdles were overcome, and two programs, a teacher's and a student's are included to illustrate some of the advantages as well as some of the problems involved in flexible scheduling. (See Appendices C & D)

It is noted that, in the teacher's program, every day has a different pattern, breaking the routine of the traditional lockstep system.

The student's program includes seventy-two modules of classroom activities which embrace eight subjects, a good illustration of curricular expansion. Of the student's twenty-eight modules of unscheduled time, there are fifteen modules of off-campus time and thirteen modules of unstructured time on campus.

How the student uses his independent study time appears to be the greatest problem created by flexible scheduling. Given free choice, the student has the option of spending it in a lounge, indoors or outdoors, or in a laboratory, a resource center, the library, in conference with a teacher, or in a directed study group.

Apparently, in this high school, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages in the opinion of the staff, since 98% of them, in answer to a questionnaire, expressed approval of the program.

When a school has made the decision to consider changing to flexible scheduling, certain steps must be taken for implementing the change with maximum efficiency. The following guidelines are suggested for preliminary consideration:

1. Prepare your teachers carefully and involve them in the planning.

2. Analyze course content thoroughly and make flexible scheduling do what you want it to do for you. Tailor it to your needs and do not just adopt what someone else has done.
3. Go into it with an open mind, realizing that there will be problems, especially the first year.
4. Provide facilities so that students will have somewhere to go on their unstructured time. These should include additional study rooms, resource centers in the various subject areas, expanded library facilities and laboratories for independent study.
5. Adopt flexible scheduling in-toto.

Dr. Allen was able to spend one and a half day at this year's institute. He presented three lectures and made himself available for two informal discussion groups in addition to the small group discussions after the first two lectures. The following pages will be an effort to synthesize his lectures and comments. First, a few statements about his background and accomplishments.

Dr. Dwight Allen received his A.B., M.A., and Ed. D. at Stanford University. He is presently Associate Professor of Education at Stanford University. This coming year he will be the Dean of Education at the University of Massachusetts.

He is one of the original developers of flexible scheduling and, along with Robert Politzer, co-director of "A Survey and Investigation of Foreign Language Instruction Under Conditions of Flexible Scheduling."

He also is coordinator of the Secondary Teacher Education Intern Program at Stanford and co-director of both the microteaching and videotape studies presently being conducted at Stanford. In addition he is on the staff of the Center for Research and Development in Teaching at Palo Alto.

Together with Dr. R. N. Bush, he wrote the book, " A New Design for High School Education Assuming a Flexible Schedule" published by McGraw-Hill in 1964.

In 1959, while working on new curriculum development, Dr. Allen became convinced that a way had to be found to overcome the hackneyed excuse, "You can't schedule it." To remove this bottleneck, he turned his attention to the whole question of scheduling.

An inquiry to IBM revealed that the computer could schedule anthing LOGICAL. Dr. Allen concluded that traditional scheduling was not logical -- that it was only a "cut and fit" procedure. He collaborated with Professor Oakford, a brilliant computer scientist, to initiate the Stanford School Scheduling System. In the summer of 1961, Dr. Allen did not have a system, just an idea. It was at this time that a conference on flexible scheduling was held. It was based on Dr. Allen's original manuscript for the book, "A New Design for High School Education Assuming a Flexible Schedule."

Subsequent investigation followed two parallel lines: 1) what the machine could do, 2) what man could devise. By the fall of 1963, the machine challenged: "Now you CAN schedule. What do you want?" Educators were still not prepared to supply the answer. They were willing, however, to experiment. That same year, four high schools initiated flexible scheduling. A year later, thirteen schools were involved. By 1967 over one hundred schools were working with the Stanford School Scheduling System. (SSSS)

Out of this field experiment of 1963 came more knowledge about the art of scheduling. The computer is relentlessly consistent: it does exactly what it is told. Therefore: (1) the computer must be told which courses cannot be changed; (2) dummy modules must be used to maintain the integrity of the desired schedule. In the beginning, decisions are always educational decisions. Whatever technical compromises are necessary are made as compromises but the decisions are always initiated as educational decisions.

Foreign languages have the highest failure rate of any subject in the curriculum, as a result of crowded classes and the structure of the program itself. The advent of flexible scheduling raises the following critical issues:

1. Is it professionally responsible to schedule students into the next higher level of the foreign language when it can be predicted that they will fail?
2. What is meant by "level" when even the foreign language experts do not agree on a definition?
3. Is it an accepted practice that children study a foreign language in terms of becoming fluent, or is it only in terms of a number of years?

These problems can be alleviated by designing a more logical curriculum in which a student may be allowed to take one and a half levels rather than continuing in the second level, where there is every indication that he may fail. There are many options of handling the attendant problem of credit which is an administrative concern.

After establishing the performance criteria we can adopt individualized pacing, or self-pacing -- each student going at his own pace. This is appropriate for certain students under certain circumstances, but effort should be put into automatic pacing. It should be decided how far students will go. A common presentation should be given with individualized instruction before the next common presentation. The individualized instruction will consist of various alternatives; some will have a maintenance dose and some will have to do the whole thing over. There are many alternatives. Student diagnosis takes place after the large-group presentation. The student is presented with the alternatives, and the teacher in an active role monitors the quality of student decision.

In the past, we have attempted many alternatives to the individualization of instruction. Flexible scheduling has exposed these as poor choices. The three palliatives, homework, remedial work, and enrichment, are masochistic tools which educators use to salve their conscience. Remedial work never actually remedies. It is only a sop to ease the problem. Enrichment should be eliminated. It is an insidious notion because one never knows when he is done. Students who have met the criteria are more likely to go beyond the criteria. Foreign language students should not be forced to jump artificial hurdles under the guise of enrichment. If students like foreign language they will achieve, and at their option they will put forth effort to reach greater achievement without the weapon of enrichment.

Schools engaging in flexible scheduling usually follow this pattern: first year - structural innovations, second year - consolidation, third year - curriculum development. However, only about one-third of the schools accomplish this because of their view of objectives and evaluation of objectives. Freedom should be given to innovate without being hamstrung by objectives. For example: "To teach foreign language to all students." This objective is usually pursued in the traditional manner, insisting that the objectives be clearly defined before starting the practice. This is unrealistic because objectives and practice are twin pillars -- one depending upon the other. Therefore, it is not possible to organize at once to see where flexible scheduling is going or what it will do, but it is necessary to experiment with these things to organize our thinking. More definite objectives will follow through practice.

There are certain problems involved in the implementation of flexible scheduling which should now be considered. First of all, who starts it? Any teacher, any administrator, any student is in a powerful enough position to be a catalyst to start flexible scheduling if they are able somehow to mobilize the resources. The next consideration is, what proportion of the faculty has to be in favor of it? A good rule of thumb is that you have to have about 30% of your faculty that is vocally enthusiastic, not more than 20% that is vocally opposed, and about 50% that can go one way or the other depending upon which side of the bed they got up on, or whom they were talking to last. Many people think that you have to have faculty unanimity before you can do something like this, but that is rather foolish because it is doubtful you can attain complete faculty agreement on anything, including what you are presently doing. Another factor is, how much time is needed in preparation for flexible scheduling? Lead time for the implementation of flexible scheduling is somewhere between nine and fifteen months. Schools that take longer than that usually don't ever get started. It is hard to get teachers up to a fever pitch and then keep them there for three or four years. There is too much change in staff, too much history of a lot of talk and no producing. Everything seems to combine to thwart the long-range plan. Best schedules have taken about ten months or one school year's lead time for preparation for flexible scheduling. However, there are no rules about this. It is a highly unique and individual situation.

Many schools are using flexible scheduling very unimaginatively in foreign language programs. Flexible scheduling does not impose any kind of instructional system. What it does is open up alternatives. It's entirely possible that a given set of foreign language teachers in a given school will not be imaginative enough to use it. It is necessary to underline the fact that flexible scheduling is a tool. People are inclined to say the computer did this, that, or the other thing to us. It's like saying, "I'm going home tonight and let the typewriter type my project."

One of the greatest problems is that the element of independent study is not really built into the program. Independent study plays an important role and should not be overlooked. Many complain that they do not have enough time -- if there is any banner that foreign language teachers have ever flown under, it is the daily instruction banner. Is daily language instruction really all that desirable? Perhaps a solution is to cut down on contact hours in the language and increase independent study time, and make it an integral part of the program. Large group instruction is complained about to the extent that it is becoming extinct in foreign language teaching. What can the large group do for the foreign language program? It ca provide intrapersonal as opposed to interpersonal instruction. The latter is usually described as passive, because there is no observable change. However, this is a fals notion. It is simply covert involvement as opposed to overt involvement.

Teachers must learn how to use the lab well. The number one problem is the lack of the kind of materials available to keep students interested in using the lab, and the number two problem is lack of technical knowledge or service contracts. The genuine alternatives in the curriculum haven't been considered. Part of the problem is that the structure has not been available to be considered. It is necessary to become more imaginative in utilizing the alternatives. It is suggested that teachers go back and read some of the earliest articles on the foreign language lab -- the ones where people were discussing its potential. The possibilities were conceived in terms of individualized use. The materials were not developed as fast as the electronics. As a result the language lab was used less and less for individualized instruction to the point of having students use it in unison, and thus entered the advent of the electronics classroom. The audio-lingual method has come under attack because it demands no homework. However, the purposes of homework -- reinforcement, drills, listening experience -- can be accomplished during the school day under flexible scheduling by efficient use of the language lab.

A sophisticated lab with a technician to run it is a "must" in the flexible scheduling concept. The foreign language teacher is rarely a technician, and so it is preferable that the lab be separately staffed. A school of 1500 to 2000 students should have a lab with at least 80 stations which could serve also as a listening center for other curricular areas. The question of whether students require monitoring in the lab is moot. Probably they will do just as well without it. The listen-compare procedure would obviate the need for monitoring. Above all, the language lab must not be given up in favor of the electronic classroom for it is directly opposed to the individualizing of instruction which is inherent in flexible scheduling.

There is no little packet which tells how to teach foreign languages under conditions of flexible scheduling. It is a do-it-yourself kit. Evidence shows that the ideal time to learn another language is at the age of two. In the United States it has been assumed that people can study a language, but not that they can learn a language. A curriculum should be set up so that one can really become fluent. Study should begin as early as possible, and the program should be coordinated. The main dose should be FLES with maintenance doses later, in the secondary years. An elementary teacher should not be expected to be competent in a foreign language plus fourteen other areas of the curriculum. Foreign language teacher specialists should be used in the FLES program. It is a naive assumption to say the faster the better. This should be true only for those students who want to go that fast. Which is more desirable, a concentrated period of instruction for a short sequence or a long sequence with shorter periods of instruction? Which is better, an hour a day or a half hour? Here, of course, it is essential to consider student learning patterns.

One must consider his "capital curriculum resources". Increasing class size can save teaching periods which can be used for curriculum development and preparation of materials for the language lab. With flexible scheduling, all these alternatives are open. Then we can go about conceptualizing the curriculum in a way that we have never done before.

Microteaching. This is a method of teacher-training started at Stanford six years ago. Bright college students were bored with dull education courses and the unimaginative way they did their practice teaching, so a demonstration teaching course was devised. The essential elements of this type of practice teaching are: Real teaching of a genuine subject to students who are at the real grade level; constructed teaching scaled down with only three or four students for a five-minute lesson; controlled teaching situations which are convened when it is convenient for the supervisor. It is a lab situation rather than a contrived situation. Each individual lesson is taught, critiqued, and re-taught. In other words a lesson is taught to one group and critiqued by a trained supervisor for approximately fifteen minutes.Then the lesson is taught to another group and critiqued immediately. Microteaching can replace about one-half of student teaching experience. In each of these lessons a specific teaching skill is evaluated. This is the reason for such small units of time and students. Before beginning their actual teaching, they will have had thirty supervised lessons under conditions of microteaching.

The techniques used for microteaching can be effective in the supervision of any program. It must be understood that supervision means evaluation primarily. It is assumed that teachers will be unhappy if evidence of teaching is collected. Perhaps there is a feeling of guilt on the part of supervisors about the lack of quality teaching.

The profession has been suffering from globalitis. Here are four propositions regarding supervision: (1) Five or ten-minute visits are preferable to full-period visitations, although the observer should remain as long as necessary to serve his purposes; (2) A maximum of two suggestions should be made during the conference; (3) A return visit should be made within four days; (4) A second conference must follow the return visit.

A supervisor should go into the classroom with an agenda or at least a partial one. He might work with teachers on a series of technical skills over the course of the year. For example, in foreign language, there are different kinds of supervisory protocols depending upon the experience of the teacher. With beginning teachers there might be a dozen specific skills. The first time around, an inventory of the different skills that each teacher has might be compared against a major check list such as: running a laboratory, using pattern drills, motivational activities, making assignments. In the implementation of this technique there are dangers. If the procedure becomes merely a mechanical one, the teacher will have no maneuvering room. Opportunities must be retained for the teacher's personal development. The point is that supervision should become a supportive procedure.

The following are some conclusions that have been drawn as the result of Dr. Allen's lectures.

We are witnessing a whole revolution in education which is bringing about a change in the quality of teaching to achieve the status of a profession. We must be willing to discard our sacred cows in order to change our thinking and thus see realistically the inconsistencies in our present educational programs. If teachers are allowed to experiment, the possibilities for innovation are unlimited. We are speaking about change, not for the sake of change, but innovating our thinking and using imaginatively the tools we already have at our disposal. Dr. Allen considers flexible scheduling one of the most important tools that we have for improving the whole process of education. We must be willing to innovate even at the risk of being wrong. To quote Dr. Allen, "If I am going to err, it will be by action and not by default. If I go down I want it to be with all flags flying."

APPENDIX A.

FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING: USEFUL TERMINOLOGY

1. flexible - pliable, variable, not rigid or fixed

2. scheduling - scheduling is the structuring of both students and time into an amicable relationship.

3. schedule - the schedule is the document which enumerates the values and limitations of the various component parts.

4. module - the module is the basic unit used in the structuring of a schedule. It represents the values or limitations which have been imposed on each of the variables, such as the number of students of the amount of time.

5. schedule module - this is the period of time during which the master schedule does not repeat itself. In conventional schedules, the schedule module is one day. In variable scheduling, the schedule module is structured for an entire week, and may even be changed weekly.

6. curriculum area - this is the actual space marked off on a schedule. It is derived by multiplying the total time available by the number of students enrolled.

7. modular units - the arrangement of each module into any relationship. The total number of time modules plus student modules gives the total number of modular units in the cluster or design of the new course structure.

8. course structure - the course structure is the arrangement into phases and sections of all the variable factors, such as students and instructors and time modules in any given course, showing how they will meet during a time cycle.

9. phase - the subdivision of the course structure into an arrangement during which students, instructors and period length remain constant.

10. section - a section is a subdivision of a phase. The number of sections desired is determined by the minimum number of students to be placed in each section. Division into progressively smaller sections or groups increases the numbers of sections needed.

11. large Group (LG) (LGI - Large group instruction) - for purposes of definition, a large group is any group which involves a sufficiently large number of students as to place the primary emphasis of instruction on the presentation of materials which require a minimum of interaction between students and teachers.

12. small group (SG) - any group which is small enough as to place the primary emphasis of instruction on face-to-face contact between students and teacher or between members of the group. This number may arbitrarily be any number less than 15.

13. intermediate group - for purposes of a definition, any group in which the instruction permits only occasional and limited discussion or face-to-face contact. Arbitrarily, any number between 15 and 30.

14. independent Study (also called Individual Study) (IS) - a type of instruction in which the student engages in activities independent of other students and in large part independent of immediate teacher direction.

15. independent Study Period (ISP) - unstructured or unscheduled student time, during which the student pursues his own inclinations. Often referred to as "free time".

16. laboratory - any physical facility for which special tools or equipment are needed to enable students to work independently and in small groups.

17. computerized scheduling - determining of course structures and student and teacher schedules by means of electronic computer systems. Since flexible scheduling must account for an infinite arrangement of several variable factors, advanced computer systems are an aid which facilitates this chore.

18. SSSS - Stanford Student Scheduling System.

19. SOUST - Scheduling of Unscheduled Student Time.

20. SAP - Systems Analysis Programs.

21. contractural work - assignment of work for individual study agreed upon by teacher and student which is to be performed independently by the student under the guidance of the teacher.

22. team teaching - utilization of staff in such a way as to achieve integration of professional staff, support staff, and technical and resource personnel into a productive unit to carry out a particular course cycle.

23. single discipline team - professional staff working as a team in the same discipline or subject area. Also called intra-discipline.

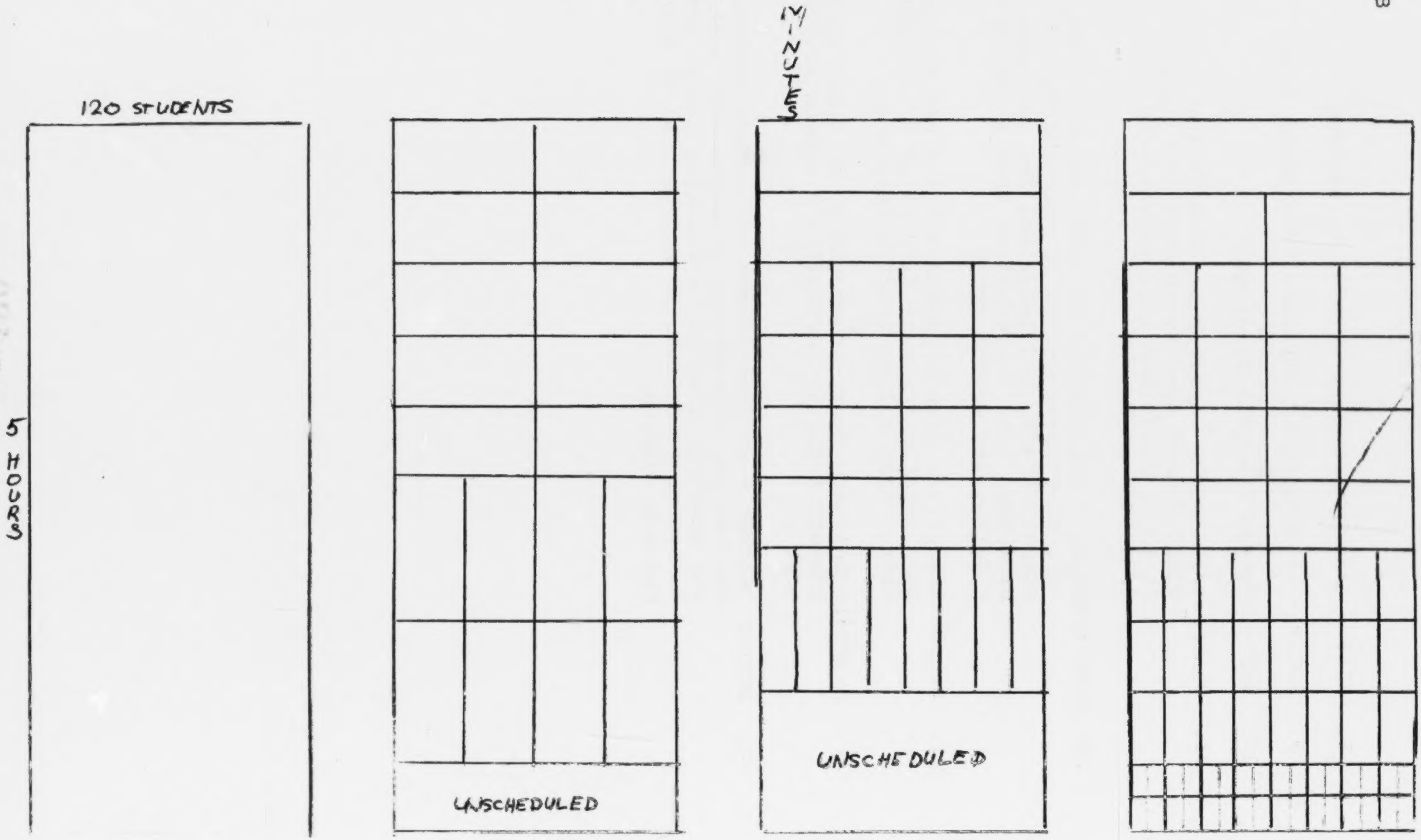
24. interdisciplinary team - cooperation of staff in several subject areas to accomplish a common teaching goal.

25. senior teacher - an experienced and mature teacher who has had substantial graduate work both in the academic area he is teaching and in professional education. He should hold at least the M.A. degree.

APPENDIX B

GROUPING BY ACTIVITY

SCALE: 1/4 INCH = 15 STUDENTS


MINUTES
120 STUDENTS
5 HOURS
UNSCHEDULED
UNSCHEDULED

APPENDIX C

Program for: Foreign Language Teacher

	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Time
1	Span.		Span.		Span.	7:50-8:12
2	I		I		I	8:12-8:33
3	Span.	Span.	Attend. check	Span.		8:37-8:57
4	II	II		II		9:01-9:20
5	Span.		Span.		Span.	9:24-9:44
6	II		II	Span.	II	9:48-10:07
7	FL Lab.	Span.		II		10:11-10:31
8		IA				10:35-10:54
9						10:58-11:18
10	Span.		Span.	Span.	Span.	11:22-11:41
11	I		I	I	I	11:45-12:04
12					FL Lab.	12:07-12:26
13						12:30-12:48
14	FL		FL			12:52-1:12
15	Lab.		Lab.			1:16-1:36
16	Span.		Span.		Span.	1:40-1:59
17	IA		IA	FL Lab.	IA	2:03-2:22
18				Span.		2:26-2:46
19				I	Span.	2:50-3:10
20					II	3:10-3:33

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ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AVAILABLE

Materials include the following: Packet of Flexible Scheduling materials

Packet of Micro-Teaching Materials

Report for State Committee on Public Education "Teacher Education 1980"

Seven Film Lectures "Innovation in Education"

Write to:

School Planning Laboratory
School of Education
Stanford University
Palo Alto, California

REPORT

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE LINGUISTS
TO THE
TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Dr. William Bull

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THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE LINGUISTS TO THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE

The nature of Dr. Bull's contribution not only to the field of linguistics, but also to its practical application to classroom teaching of foreign languages--and Spanish, in particular--is so significant that the committee felt bound to acquaint members of the Institute with a limited number of concepts fundamental to his orientation. His perspective extends from a theoretical analysis of language based on philological, cultural and structural considerations to the manner in which it can be implemented through a language teaching methodology which includes current findings in the field of psychology of learning. Applying this rigorous analysis to Spanish, Dr. Bull discovered that the current, standard rules of grammar inadequately describe the language. He approached grammar analysis through concepts rather than through merely formal aspects of language. Consequently he has eschewed defining his methodology in terms other than eclectic. The committee, therefore, was obliged to present not only the static aspect of his work, such as publications and terminology, but also the dynamic approach which characterizes his research, his pedagogy, and his continual striving to facilitate communication through language.

The first part of this report will be a resume of the two presentations given by the committee prior to Dr. Bull's arrival. This will be followed by an exposition of his three talks. We shall conclude with some implications of linguistics for the language teacher as revealed through a question-answer session.

Dr. Bull received his Ph.D. degree in 1940 at the University of Wisconsin. He has taught at the Universities of Wisconsin, Iowa, Washington (St. Louis), Sothern California, Michigan, New Mexico, and California. He has served as Professor of Linguistics and Teaching Methodology at 5 NDEA Institutes (Michigan in 1959; UCLA in 1960 and 1961; New Mecico, 1961-62; and the University of Puget Sound at Tacoma, Washington, 1963). As consultant to the U.S. Office of Education he has served as an NDEA Institute Evaluator and he also advised on programs designed for the Peace Corps. He has published in the fields of Linguistics, Teaching Methodology, Philology, Machine Translation, General Education, Literature, and Geography. His major publiciations include *Time, Tense and The Verb*, 1960; *A Visual Grammar of Spanish*, 1961; and *Spanish for Teachers*: *Applied Linguistics*, 1965. He is currently Professor of Spanish Linguistics at the University of California at Los Angeles, California.

The committee felt that certain points drawn from the Visual Grammar of Spanish (VGS) would exemplify the particular kind of contrastive analysis used by Dr. Bull. The VGS was created by the University of California at Los Angeles under contract with the United States Office of Education. It consists of 472 posters which are designed to enable the teacher to begin dealing with a language-learning problem by providing a visual substitute for the real-life experiences to be talked about in Spanish. The pictures provide a dramatic means of going from external reality to language without the need for grammatical explanations which often confuse and frustrate the student. Consequently the committee planned two demonstrations of the VGS to introduce Dr. Bull's teaching theories to the group.

The first presentation attempted to convey some insight into the way that any speaker of a language organizes reality, since it will be this reality that his use of language reflects. Successful communication between the peoples of two cultures becomes possible only when it is accepted that both live in different physical and social environments; they have different traditions, different beliefs, different ambitions, and they organize their lives in distinctly different fashions. Two speakers of different cultures will be able to communicate when they understand enough about the culture of the language being used to be able to agree that they are using the same frame of reference. Therefore, according to Dr. Bull, learning any language goes hand in hand with learning certain facts about the culture that uses the language and about the world as viewed by that culture.

The culture contrasts, then, between two peoples will also reflect corresponding language contrasts. It is such contrasts that the committee dealt with in its initial presentation. The list or inventory of contrasts which results from an analysis of two languages--that of the learner and that to be learned--form the raw material used in the VGS. The procedure used to convey this information to the student was also demonstrated, for this is an integral part of the philosophy on which the VGS was conceived, namely, that the student should first be made aware of the concept before practicing its application. In other words, it is predicated on reception or guided-discovery learning rather than on pure discovery learning.

In the first demonstration, posters were used which illustrate the linguistic points of conflict resulting from the way a norm and a deviation from the norm are expressed in both English and Spanish in dealing with the verb "to be" used with predicate adjectives. In English the deviation from the norm is usually expressed by intonation or exclamation only wheras in Spanish a different verb must be used. The norm might be expressed as follows: The grass is green. La yerba es verde. The deviation from the norm would take the following form: How green the grass is! (in the heat of Summer in an arid spot of California) which corresponds to "Que verde *esta* la yerba." Other posters were used to show how concepts involving use of vocabulary, prepositions, and nominalizations could be explained first in English and then drilled in Spanish.

The second presentation reinforced other aspects of the use of the VGS and included a demonstration of the systemic analysis of verbs. The latter is an analysis based on the functions of each part of a verb form. For a brief example, in *hablamos* (we speak, we are speaking, we do speak) the morphemic breakdown is as follows habl-a-mos, the *habl-* is the stem which carries the meaning of the verb; the *-a-* is the first suffix and identifies the tense and mode (present indicative) and *-mos* is the second suffix and indicates the the person and number involved in performing the action (first person plural). Since all verbs can be broken down into these parts and classified according to form rather than context, they are said to belong to a system which is independent of the context in which they may occur. Such an analysis is therefore termed a systemic analysis. The committee showed how such an analysis could be used in teaching a student to generalize rules of verb formation from only one or two examples. A broader application of this type of analysis to verb tenses "(Vector system)" is included in the Appendix to this report.

A demonstration of some of the pitfalls in employing a teaching technique based on pure discovery learning principles concluded the second presentation. The problem was to teach the students how to arrive at a productive rule through examples alone. Linguistically, the task was to know when to choose one of two possible Spanish verbs, *ser* and *estar*, to express location which in English is rendered by one verb, "to be." A pre-test of ten items given to the participants revealed that most of them were not aware of the distinction governing the choice of *ser* and *estar* in this instance. A programmed group lesson was then presented on the overhead projector. The first seven frames of the program each consisted of two examples of the correct use of *ser* and *estar* followed by two other examples in which the learner was to indicate his choice of verb. Each frame also provided the correct answers. The eighth frame required the learner to formulate his own rule for making his choice. Frame nine gave the rule which, simply stated, was to use *ser* for location when the subject is an event such as wedding, ceremony, lesson, recital, and to use *estar* when the subject is an entity such as book, sheet music, father. Frames ten through twenty-two then provided practice in applying the rule. A post-test was given in which all participants were successful to the criterion of no fewer than 21 out of 25 correct items.

In addition to the demonstration of the discovery learning principle, the committee showed how programmed instruction techniques might be applied to language teaching.

This included a statement of objectives in behavioral terms, preassessment of the knowledge of the learner, provision of opportunities to learn the content of the lesson, and evaluation of the degree to which the discriminatory principle had been acquired.

LECTURE I

DESIGNING A PROGRAM FOR PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

In outlining his program, a teacher must distinguish between long-range goals and objectives. Long-range goals are stated in terms of what teachers expect the learner to be able to do on his own some time after he leaves the foreign language classroom. Upon achieving the goals of an adequate foreign language sequence, the student will be able to move into a foreign community and speak the language of the people without suffering cultural shocks or traumatic reactions. He will be on the road to fluency and will eventually function like a native, but, except in rare instances, will never be a native speaker. He will always carry his own points of view. There just is not enough time available to the classroom teacher to provide all the practice needed to overlearn the new language within the context of its myriad microglossaries.

On the other hand, objectives are limited aims. They are to be achieved within a specified time and are limited to a topic, a concept, or a structural segment. It is impossible to cover all the microglossaries that is, sperialized vocabulary of a language (there are 82,000 in American English alone), so the teacher must be specific and realistic in selecting instructional objectives that can be measured through visual or audial performance. It may be arbitrarily stated that 80% of the students can achieve an objective within a stipulated time. Should fewer than 80% achieve the objective, it is necessary to examine the objective, the instructional procedures, and the time factor to determine the reason for lack of achievement. It may be that too much was expected of the students in too short a period; perhaps the same test administered after sixty days would yield a 90% achievement level. In such a case it may be said that the time was initially too short, though the program and objectives were satisfactory. On the other hand, if students take too much time to make certain gains, then the objectives and the program should be revised. Therefore, the basic problem in foreign language teaching is to design a program which will enable the students to achieve certain skills within an optimum amount of time.

In order to design such a program, foreign language personnel should take advantage of the findings in the psychology of learning, applied linguistics, and perhaps what might be called a psychology of communication. The one fact that must constantly be borne in mind is that the students in foreign language classes have already learned one language. They have acquired a linguistic intuition about their own language, even though they may not be able to verbalize it. Any reaction they may have to a language problem will reflect what habits they have already built up through the use of their own language features. And these features may parallel those of the foreign language they set about to learn. Consequently, a contrastive analysis helps to identify the similarities and points of conflict. The latter will tend to run counter to the linguistic intuition of the student and evoke incorrect responses in the foreign language. Such responses are called counter-intuitive responses. These require the teacher to know what is in the learner's language that is interfering with his understanding. It is therefore a problem of psychology involving the universe of discourse.

The context in which language communication occurs extends beyond the level of the individual words used to exchange ideas. It includes the physical and cultural environments which are the referents for the terms used in any conversation. Thus the meanings of over 70% of the words which are used are dependent upon factors such as social situation, previous activities of the conversants, and the way in which the conversants organize reality. These factors represent the universe of discourse and must be taught to the foreign language student.

The areas in which the student's native universe of discourse agrees with that of the second language will pose little difficulty for him to master. He will normally project his own habits and will usually be able to communicate. It is in areas of disagreement, however, that the student will need to be enlightened as to the logical necessity for making a choice in the foreign language where none is required in his own. For example, the American normally does not distinguish in speaking of horses in general as to whether they are mares of stallions. To the Argentinian, however, this distinction must be made when speaking of a horse. This is a cultural difference. A linguistic difference can be seen in the use of certain English words which can be represented by more than one term in the second language. For instance, to take can be rendered in Spanish by either tomar or llevar, depending on whether the subject is being transported (tomar) or is doing the transporting (llevar). Thus a constrastive analysis must include points of cultural as well as linguistic divergence in order to acculturate the student and teach him the cues to the options available in the second language.

LECTURE II

THE ROLE OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Programming a foreign language course is a complicated process requiring many steps to teach a single concept. As previously mentioned, it is necessary to begin with a contrastive analysis of English and the foreign language. This will reveal four categories of comparison:

1. features which are alike in both languages
2. a split category in English (two or more features) contrasted with a coalesced category (one feature) in the foreign language
3. a coalesced category in English contrasted with a split category in the foreign language
4. features in one language which have no parallel in the other language

In programming a learning situation, therefore, one must isolate each feature and decide how the linguistic intuition of the learner can be utilized. It is then necessary to sequence the steps involved in the teacher's activity and the learning which is expected to take place in the student. This is a painstaking process in which the beginning step, the order, and the inclusion of all necessary steps are of prime importance. It is imperative to analyze the tasks required to reach the terminal behavior stated in the objectives in order to determine a suitable starting point for instruction. It might be added that little attention has been paid to this type of sequencing of currently published material.

A good example of what is involved in sequencing a lesson is found in the problem of teaching the uses of haber, ser, and estar to express location in Spanish. These constructions when analyzed in terms of English do not have a triple parallel in English, because English has only the verb to be; Spanish has a three-way split category which is coalesced in English. Now the choices required to use these verbs depend on whether the subject falls into the set of events of of entities. Therefore, the student must be taught to distinguish between these two sets, and teaching this distinction may involve as many as 150 steps. Once this concept is taught, the role of definite and indefinite articles must be considered. The indefinite articles are used to initiate common focus (There's a book on the table) and the definite articles are used to maintain common focus (The book on the table is old.) between the conversants. The problem of set theory then becomes important to provide an inventory of cues for choosing one of the verbs. Fifteen different problems must be controlled before these three verbs can be managed effectively. Each problem involves not only an explanation but also many drills to ensure that the student will internalize the cues for choice.

After analysis and statement of the problems, the most efficient way to get the student to change his behavior appears to be the one identified with computer programming. This is in contrast with the psychologist's approach to programming, which tends to omit certain steps. For example, it is insufficient to say that definite and indefinite articles are used to cue the use of the verbs haber, ser, and estar, because the words "indefinite" and "definite" are merely lables. These articles must be identified as forms which contain a stem and the morphemes for sex and number and which must be programmed so that the student is able to know what each part of the form does. This now raises the problem of morphology which takes many more steps and several days to control. In devising procedures for changing student behavior, no one methodology or text is sufficient. Each step must be scrutinized to determine the most effective way it might be presented. Several procedures should be used, alternating from one to the other in order to achieve the immediate objective while maintaining the attention of the student.

Current textbooks are designed on the principle of discovery learning. They leave out, however, certain segments of information or learning which the student is supposed to discover by himself. It takes time to "discover," but in these texts the student is asked to learn the foreign language like his mother tongue, only in fewer hours. The student is asked to do too much too soon. Through the computer approach to learning, his intuition is allowed to develop in the second language as in the first language; but in order to do so, he has to be taught sets and what he knows intuitively must be combined with what he must learn. If this is done through a conscious procedure, the student can learn in a few minutes what a child takes two and a half years to learn. It is a problem in educational economy; the discovery method can operate effectively only when given sufficient time. It is necessary to use English to accomplish this learning, despite the theories of the proponents of the Direct Method and the Audio-Lingual Approach. It is necessary to use English to communicate what the student needs to know before he can begin to talk freely in the foreign language. In other words, English is used to teach him how to use the language and to make choices; it is used in the beginning stages to teach him how to learn. The foreign language, however, is always used as the model for speech.

LECTURE III

TASK ANALYSIS--SEQUENCING A PROGRAM

Since the use of traditional textbooks and of audio-lingual texts results in a minimal content input for the students and a lock-step teaching pattern, there is a need to evaluate the present teaching methods and texts. The attrition rate by the fourth year of foreign language is almost as high with the audio-lingual approach as with the grammar-translation method. This can be attributed to frustration on the part of students because of an accumulation of a deficit of knowledge. This deficit is built up especially among the average and low students who are unable to discover on their own the many cues which determine the choices needed to enable them to generate new sentences. In other words, from the first semester onwards, they have missed more and more bits of information which are essential to satisfactory progress. Consequently, their frustration exceeds their motivation to learn. The problem is to remove their deficit of knowledge before it can accumulate by presenting the students with well-structured programmed material which permits them to learn step by step at their own pace.

Approximately ninety percent of the material that is usually explained in class can be put into programmed form for the student to learn outside of class. This is the job for specialists, for no one person, certainly not the teacher alone, can be completely informed in all the necessary areas for this gargantuan task. It takes a team of experts who thoroughly understand such fields as methodology, psychology of learning, linguistics, cognitive styles, curriculum development, programming, test construction, and test analysis. In addition, one member must be a native speaker to be able to judge the authenticity of the material.

The role of the teacher will have to change. He will become an actor, a performer, and a corrector who will be the intermediary between the student and the programmer. The student assumes far greater responsibility for his part in language learning.

CONCLUSION

The last lecture was followed by a question-answer period. The committee felt the following points to be the most salient:

1) How can one judge attitudes?

Dr. Bull: Factual information on culture can be tested, but attitudes are emotional. It is possible to create some psychological tests to see how a person responds to a situation. This can be done by having the individual rate on a straight line whether a certain idea is acceptable or not acceptable to him.

2) Should structures be analyzed in a beginning course of a foreign language?

Dr. Bull: Yes, because students must understand structure.

3) At what time is it best to start a foreign language?

Dr. Bull: As yet, there is no scientific evidence to say at what time it is best to start a foreign language. Every individual has a point in his maturation when it is best for him. He must be ready to handle abstractions.

4) Isn't the use of English in class contrary to the audio-lingual approach?
Dr. Bull: Yes, but the audio-lingual approach is not dogma. Probably the use of English in class should not exceed five minutes at a time and five hours per semester.

5) If the emphasis shifts to programmed learning, will the teacher be necessary?
Dr. Bull: Yes. There must be the human factor, for the purpose of language is to communicate with people, not computers.

6) What is your opinion of the use of TV for foreign language teaching?
Dr. Bull: It is not worthwhile today, but if $1,000,000 per year for seven years could be expended, a good program could be produced. It would have to be a complete package including guides, tapes, pupil materials, etc.

7) Do you approve of the use of contrastive data to teach English grammar?
Dr. Bull: Transformational techniques are more powerful than a structural approach. Theoretical transformationalists are not yet producing applied transformational materials for instruction.

8) Are taped materials going to be available for Spanish For Communication?
Dr. Bull: Yes, because there is a demand for them, but I do not consider that they are essential since they are not capable of correcting student errors when they occur during the laboratory exercise.

* * * * * * * *

The forthrightness with which Dr. Bull approaches a problem of applied linguistics may not always meet with everyone's approval, but one can not help but admire and respect the rigor and spirit of scientific inquiry he brings to practical problems of the foreign language classroom. The significance of Dr. Bull's contribution to the teaching of foreign languages cannot be measured solely in terms of specific techniques or methods on how to teach. Rather, what he offers is a stimulating perspective and outlook on the possibilities for effecting a harmonious multi-specialists' approach to the problem of efficiency in education. It is a matter of a never-ending search for the means to achieve the most learning of productive language skills in the shortest length of time and within the available resources.

APPENDIX

THE TENSE SYSTEM

I. Time is an abstraction.
A. All events take time to take place, have length, and are measurable;
B. All events have initiative, imperfective or terminative aspect;
C. All events are cyclic or non-cyclic;
D. All events take place uni-directionally;
E. Calendars deal with lineur time.

II. The Vector System.
A. Axis of Orientation. (Bull, pages 155-159)
1. The axis of orientation establishes the point from which the speaker or observer makes his observations. The prime point is the moment of speech.
2. There are four possible axes of orientation: two prime axes, actually experienced; and two anticipated axes, which are never experienced.
3. The Vector System (envisioned on a single line) shows the following order relationsip to the axis of orientation:
a. anterior to the axis of orientation,
b. simultaneous with the axis of orientation (no distance, nor direction), or
c. posterior to the axis of orientation
4. When the axis of oreintation has been established, direction plus distance are determined by the answer given to such questions as:
a. How far?
b. How anterior?

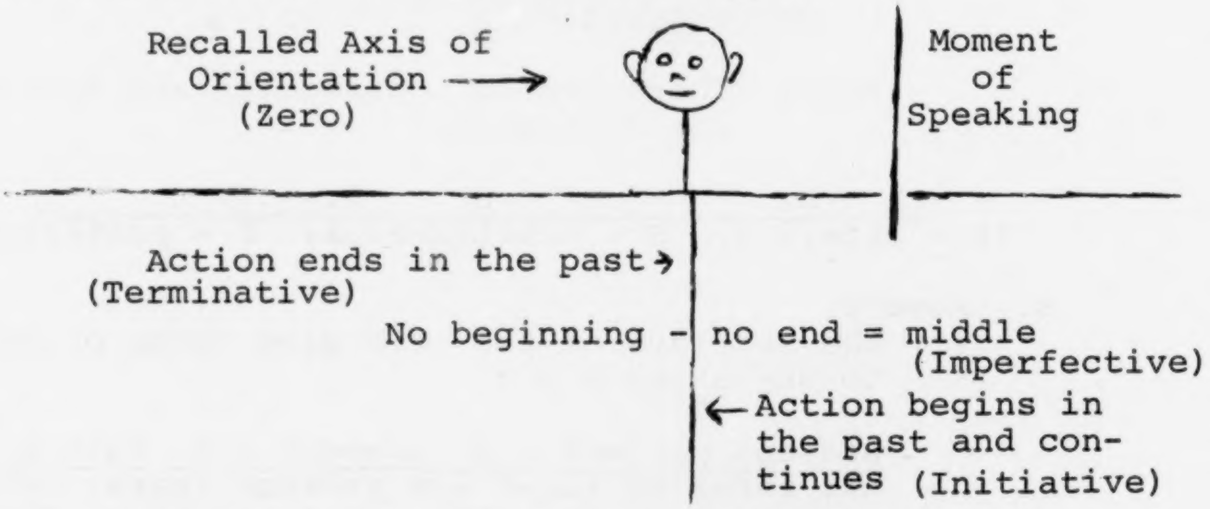
Note: There are both direction and distance in the following:

A. S. P.
(A = anterior; S = simultaneous; P = posterior)

B. Aspect.
1. The suffixes of the verb give three orientations to any axis; e.g.:

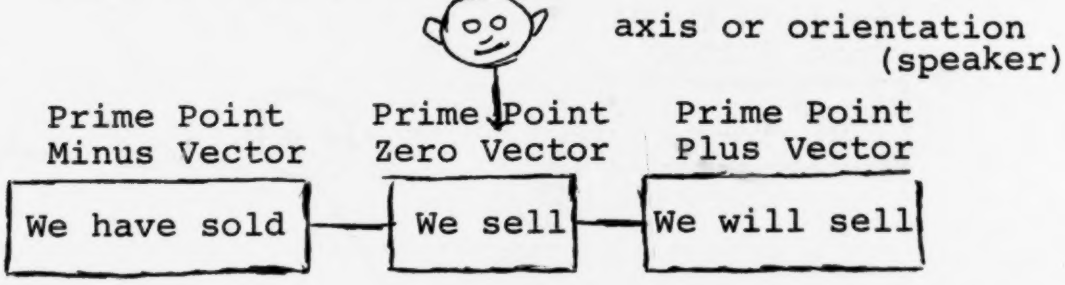
present perfect = A present = S future = P
All three of these are present tense, each with a marker showing order relationship. The morphemic system always supports the theoretical concept of the vector system.
2. In the vector system an event at the axis of orientation is always represented by zero.
3. Relationships to the axis of orientation are either:
a. plus (future or anticipation)
OR
b. minus (past or recollection)

4. Every event theoretically has:
    a. a beginning or
    b. a middle or (The formula: B - M - E)
    c. an end
5. All events are either cyclic or non-cyclic.
    a. "Cyclic events cannot be observed or reported until they are terminated....We do not drop something until we let loose of it. A door is not closed until it touches its frame...In these examples, when the event takes place, it automatically terminates. It cannot be extended and it cannot be repeated without going through all the phases of the cycle again, that is, the door can be closed again only after being opened.... Because each phase in the cycle must be gone through before the event can be repeated, these events are called cyclic events. It is to be noted, that, and with extreme caution, this term applies only to events, not to the verbs which stand for them." (Spanish for Teachers. p. 168)
    b. Non-cyclic events. "The second set of events is composed of events whose characteristics are all observable at the instant of their initiation. The acts of eating, crying, walking, hearing, running, speaking, moving, etc. can be observed and defined at their very inception. They do not have to reach termination to take place, and once begun, they can, in theory be extended indefinitely." (Spanish for Teachers, p. 168)
6. Perfective and imperfective aspect:

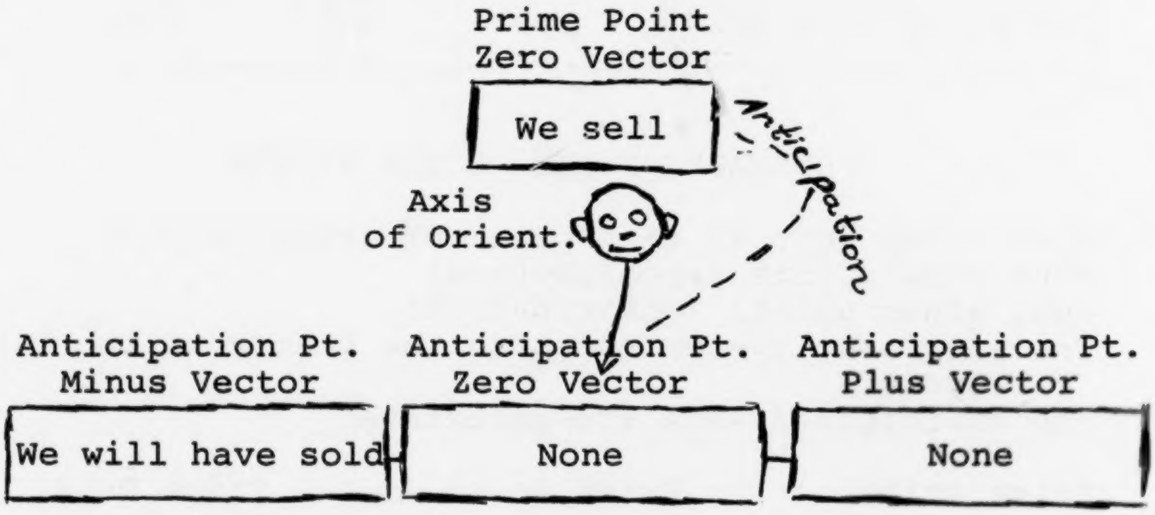

Recalled Axis of Orientation (Zero)
Moment of Speaking
Action ends in the past (Terminative)
No beginning - no end = middle (Imperfective)
Action begins in the past and continues (Initiative)

In the above set, both the terminative and the initiative indicate the perfective aspect.

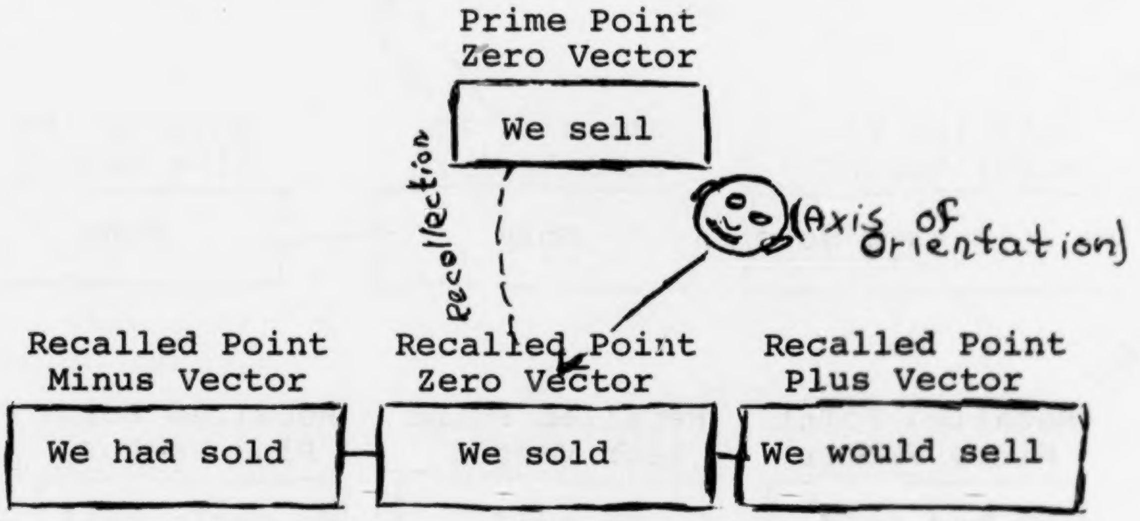
C. Order relationships.
   1. When the axis of orientation is the present moment of speech, the vector system or order relationship to this point is as follows:


axis or orientation
(speaker)
Prime Point
Minus Vector
Prime Point
Zero Vector
Prime Point
Plus Vector
We have sold
We sell
We will sell

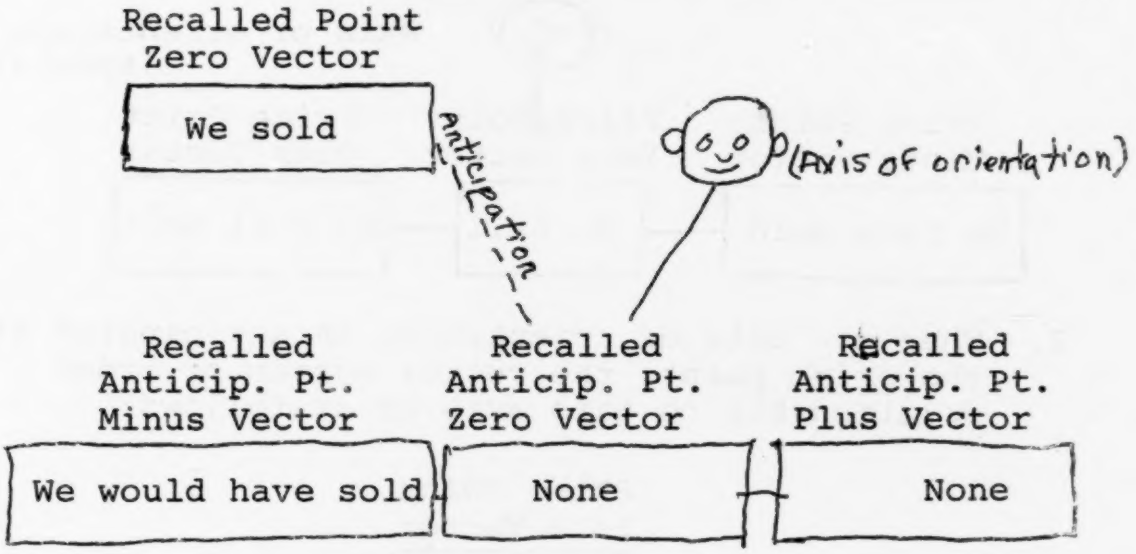
   2. When the axis of orientation is anticipated at the prime point, the vector system or order relationship to this axis is as follows:


Prime Point
Zero Vector
We sell
Anticipation
Axis
of Orient.
Anticipation Pt.
Minus Vector
Anticipation Pt.
Zero Vector
Anticipation Pt.
Plus Vector
We will have sold
None
None

   3. When the axis of orientation is recalled at prime point, the vector system or order relationship operates as follows:

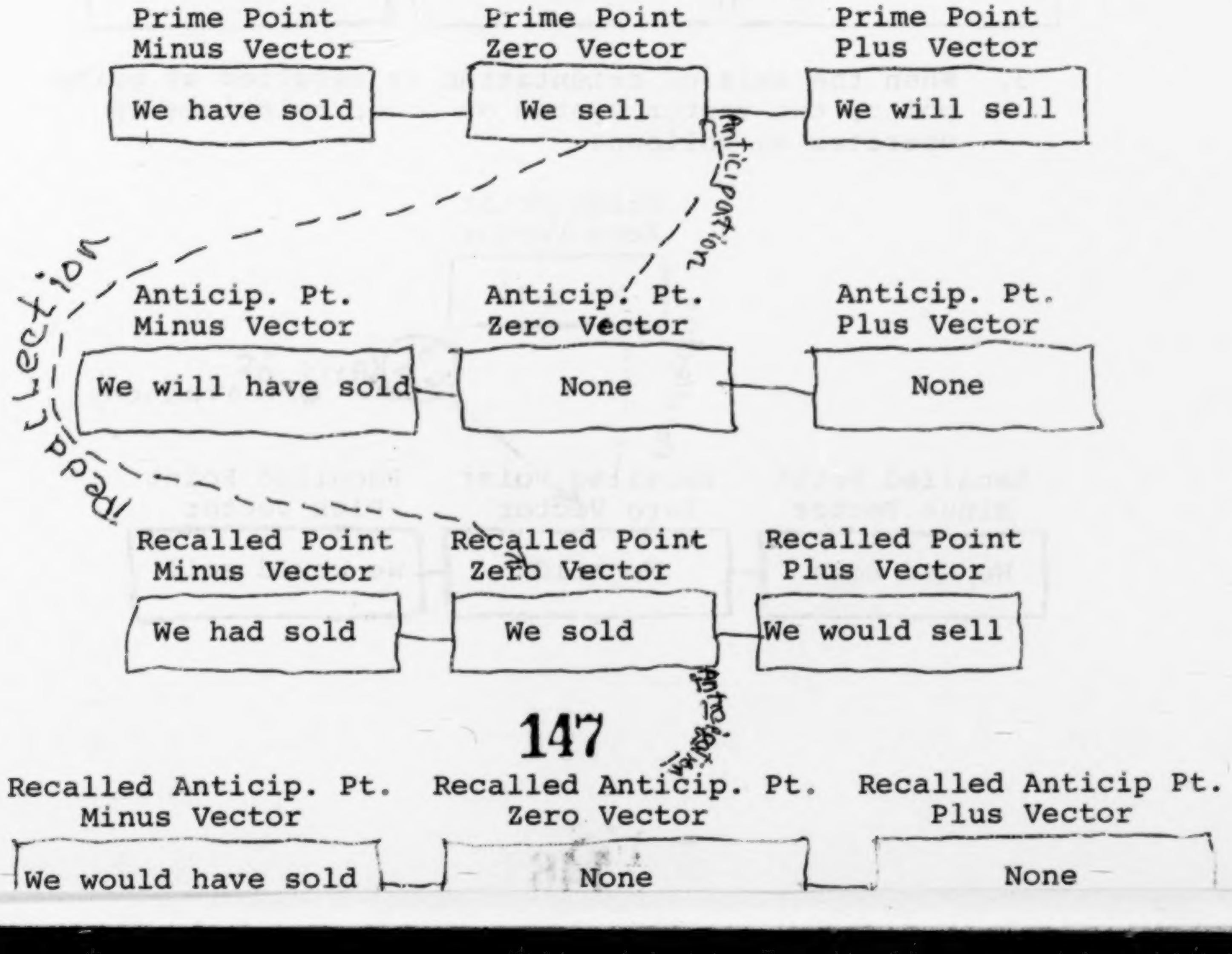

Prime Point
Zero Vector
We sell
Recollection
(Axis of Orientation)
Recalled Point
Minus Vector
Recalled Point
Zero Vector
Recalled Point
Plus Vector
We had sold
We sold
We would sell

4. When the axis of orientation is anticipated at the recalled point, the vector system or order relationships operate as follows:


Recalled Point
Zero Vector
We sold
Anticipation
(Axis of orientation)
Recalled
Anticip. Pt.
Minus Vector
We would have sold
Recalled
Anticip. Pt.
Zero Vector
None
Recalled
Anticip. Pt.
Plus Vector
None

SUMMARY OF THE VECTOR SYSTEM

Note: Four Zeros (one at each point of anticipation)
Four plus points (recollection)
Four minus points (anticipation)
The morphemic system supports the theory of the Vector System
The anticipated sets are defective.


Prime Point
Minus Vector
We have sold
Prime Point
Zero Vector
We sell
Prime Point
Plus Vector
We will sell
Anticipation
Recollection
Anticip. Pt.
Minus Vector
We will have sold
Anticip. Pt.
Zero Vector
None
Anticip. Pt.
Plus Vector
None
Recalled Point
Minus Vector
We had sold
Recalled Point
Zero Vector
We sold
Recalled Point
Plus Vector
We would sell
Anticipation
Recalled Anticip. Pt.
Minus Vector
We would have sold
Recalled Anticip. Pt.
Zero Vector
None
Recalled Anticip Pt.
Plus Vector
None

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THE LEADERSHIP COMMITTEE
FINAL REPORT
1967

PRE-LECTURE ACTIVITIES

During the 1966 Foreign Language Leadership Institute, it was felt that a more comprehensive understanding of leadership and leadership qualities was needed. The term, never having been really defined, left only a vague notion of what leadership meant. As a consequence, the staff recommended that the first lecturer of the 1967 Institute should confront the participants with pertinent characteristics of leadership qualities. Although Dr. Robert Burns, the one invited to give the series of lectures concerning leadership, had had no experience with teacher training, he had experienced success in the field of leadership management in industry. Feeling that there was universality in leadership characteristics, the staff chose Dr. Burns to discuss the topic of leadership in education, particularly the leadership role of supervision.

Dr. Burns is a professor of economics at the University of Chicago. He comes originally from Seattle, Washington, and is a graduate of the University of Washington. After World War II, Dr. Burns served as a liaison official in settling strikes in the Northwest. The Tacoma, Washington, public school administrators have used Dr. Burns as a research consultant in leadership.

The members of the Leadership Committee met to ascertain what problems of leadership should be considered before Dr. Burns' arrival. The staff committee leader distributed literature from which each member was assigned a particular phase of leadership for in-depth study. In subsequent meetings notes were compared, and six aspects of leadership were identified as worthy of deeper consideration:

1. Definition of leadership
2. Qualifications of a leader
3. Approaches to leadership
4. Group dynamics
5. Leadership in action
6. Action research.

This schematic outline was later used as a format for the preliminary panel discussion report to the Institute participants. The purpose of the preliminary report was to establish a common thinking-ground on the part of the participants for Dr. Burns' presentations on leadership training.

The preliminary report was doubly difficult because Dr. Burns had not indicated the direction of his talks, and there was no available information concerning his published articles.

The success of the panel discussion resulted, in large measure, from the expression of group ideas rather than personal opinions. During the presentation, the moderator indicated the aspects of leadership and allowed the members of the panel to comment spontaneously. Because of the lack of time, there was no discussion; but the participants were encouraged to submit questions for Dr. Burns' consideration.

LECTURE OUTLINES

The following is a condensation in topical outline form of Dr. Burns' four lectures which were edited and taped by the committee. This tape is available from the NDEA FL Leadership Institute, C.W.S.C., Ellensburg, Washington.

As a preface to his lectures, Dr. Burns elicited from the participants the general problems of foreign language supervision in order to determine the direction to be taken in his oral presentations.

LECTURE 1

I. Key dimensions of leadership

    A. A concept of leadership--definition of the particular position
    B. The various patterns of leadership
    C. The situation and problems
    D. The required skills and their development
    E. The roles and relationship of expected responses
    F. The managerial process

II. Problems and solutions

    A. Work

        1. Job description--nature of job made clear
        2. Evaluating the job--classifying and pricing job--compensating for doing job

B. Managing work--four characteristics

1. Look at work to be done--plan and get done efficiently (quantity, quality, cost, and time in industry)--how to do with maximum amount of freedom and minimum amount of coercion

    a. Clarify key areas of job for results--overall task
    b. Accountability--what specific results should individual achieve in each key area?
    c. Authority

        (1) Limits of freedom to decide
        (2) Limits of freedom to act
        (3) Necessary communication for implementing decisions and initiating action
        (4) Problems in carrying out job

2. The problems--in order of priority
3. The goals and how to achieve them
4. Results

LECTURE 2

I. Management of work

    A. Concept of work-centered approach
    B. Concept of management
    C. Problems of management

II. Key areas for results

III. New trends in management

    A. Directive to participating leadership
    B. Equalitarian relationship
    C. Management by results, by objectives
    D. Application of freedom
    E. Causative thinking, thinking perspectively

IV. Definition of leadership

    A. Getting work done effectively and efficiently
    B. Work element
    C. People element

V. Definition of work to be done

    A. Writing job descriptions
    B. Developing a program to get results
    C. Limiting of authority
    D. Identifying problems
    E. Ranking key areas in order of importance

VI. Work-centered, not trait-centered, approach

- A. Analysis of problem
- B. Review work--progress, problems
- C. Two-way communication
- D. Coaching and counseling
- E. Questioning and listening

LECTURE 3

I. Patterns of leadership

- A. Four general patterns evolving from a continum of possibilities
    - 1. Structure centered--formal, classical form; chain of command; bureaucratic (they)
    - 2. Technology centered--expertise required, know-how, technocratic (I)
    - 3. Individual centered--person oriented, dependence on individual, idiocratic (you)
    - 4. Group centered--discussion of ideas and suggestions with persons concerned, democratic (we)
- B. Selection of pattern dependent on situation

II. Situation consisting of a number of variables

- A. Problem--great range, information--communication type, "here's what" type, policy or procedural type (should we?), "how to?" type
- B. People--relationships to the problem, feelings and emotions brought to the problem
- C. Relationships

III. Qualities of leadership adapted to management problems

- A. Sensitivity to problem, people, and relationships
- B. Adaptability and flexibility in selecting pattern
- C. Skills appropriate for different patterns
- D. Climate setting--promoting cooperation; motivating those led; and easing hostility, anxiety, and threat

LECTURE 4

I. Patterns of leadership

- A. Bureaucratic
    - 1. Situation

a. Routine reports
b. Mandated orders

2. Guidelines for choice

a. Acceptance of decision
b. Efficiency
c. Standardization

B. Technocratic

1. Situation

a. Curriculum building
b. Care of equipment
c. Job assignment

2. Guidelines for choice

a. Emphasis on quality decision
b. Expertise of personnel
c. Time factor

C. Idiocratic

1. Individual-centered situation

a. Tardy personnel
b. Absenteeism
c. Incompetency

2. Gudielines for choice

a. Individual performance
b. Professional growth

D. Democratic

1. Situation

a. Scheduling
b. Selection of materials
c. Innovation

2. Guidelines

a. Necessity of group decision
b. Implementation of results
c. Pooling of experience

II. Conclusion

SUMMARY OF POST-LECTURE ACTIVITIES

Following Dr. Burn' lectures, the committee divided into teams to accomplish the following:

a. Edit the notes on each of the four lectures and prepare summaries
b. Edit the tapes from each lecture, and prepare a one hour tape summary
c. Prepare the appendices, which include the following:
    1. Dr. Burns' charts of leadership
    2. Culmination skit "Supervision A-Go-Go"
    3. Summary report of the NASA experiment in consensus
    4. Quotable quotes
    5. The vocabulary of leadership
    6. Bibliography.

APPENDIX A DR. BURNS' CHARTS OF LEADERSHIP

SUGGESTIONS ON REVIEWING PROBLEMS

What to do	Work-centered	vs	Trait-centered
1. Approach	Analyze problems		Appraise person
2. Focus	On the work		On the worker
3. Emphasis	What's wrong?		Who's wrong?
4. Process	Review work, progress, and problems		Assess person's weaknesses and strengths
5. Essence	Impersonal		Personal
6. Nature	Objective		Subjective
7. Implication	Development		Discipline
8. Role of boss	Teacher-helper		Critic-judge
9. Response of subordinate	Increased motivation		Increased apprehension

SUGGESTIONS ON REVIEWING WORK

How to do it	Work-centered	vs	Trait-centered
1. Concept	Review work		Rate worker
2. Basis	Job functions and responsibilities		Personal traits and characteristics
3. Framework	Fact-finding		Fault-finding
4. Interview	Subordinate-centered		Boss-centered
5. Procedure	Joint participation and communication		Me-over-you evaluation
6. Communication	Mostly two-way		Mostly one-way
7. Method	Coaching and counseling		Controlling and evaluating
8. Techniques	Questioning and listening		Telling and selling
9. Character	Continuing		Periodic

PATTERNS OF LEADERSHIP

	Bureaucratic	Technocratic	Idiocratic	Democratic
Characteristics of a leader	Rules and regulations	Driver	Diplomat	Quarterback
Source of power	"They" Rules	"I" Own expertise	"You" Right man in the right job	"We" Teamwork
Patterns of communication	Official Formal Limited	Critical Demanding Formal Downward	Informal Personal Downward Upward	Power from the group Permissive
Controls	Formal	Technical	Psychological	Social ways of making people a part

CLARIFYING THE WORK OF THE LANGUAGE SUPERVISOR

Key areas for results	Accountability	Authority	Communication	Problems
Define what they are (the "isness")	Determine specific results to be achieved	Determine extent of freedom to decide and to act in order to achieve results	Determine persons involved in communication and the means of communicating	Analyze problems to determine priority
What they should be (the "oughtness")	Outline steps to be taken to achieve the desired results			

APPENDIX B

The skit which follows was the culmination activity of the Burns' Lecture Committee. It is included here for possible use as a spring board for discussion in an administrative work shop.

SUPERVISION A GO-GO

Sub-title: An Exercise in Leadership, or Typical Trama in
an FL Supervisor's Day

Director and general manager - Mr. E. Sutley
Co-authors: scene I - Dorothy Chester, Cenobio Macias
II - Julia Fowler, Sister St. Teresa
III - Bill Gemmer, Tom Smith
IV - Salvador Alvarez
Cast, production staff:
Narrator - Tom Smith
Scenarist - Bill Gemmer
Supervisor - Salvador Alvarez
Miss Timid - Dorothy Chester
Mrs. Iman X. Pert - Sister St. Teresa
Algernon X. Pert - Deloy Beattie
Miss Browbeaten - Julia Fowler
Superintendent - Marcel Robichaud
Finale: (song) - "There's No Vision Like Supervision"
(with acknowledgement to two members of other groups,
Helene Parent - Barney Webber)
Follow-up: Cenobio Macias
Introduction: Narrator:

So now, the Burns Committee is ready
to march into the present
And it's always rather pleasant
To speculate on what the hour ahead
of us will see.
For our words and thoughts of
leadership, all our attitudes,
All our novelties and platitudes,
Will be rather ancient history
In a year or two or three

Scene I: "The New Teacher"

Narrator: The supervisor, sensitive to the needs of those on his staff, feels that the time has come to initiate action.

Scene: Miss Timid, during prep period, room 13.

Supervisor: (Enters) How are things going, Miss Timid?

Miss Timid: (Stands, knocks over chair) Fine, Thanks, Mr. Gogo.

Sup'r: Here are the remaining books you will need, according to your class count.

Miss T: (Takes books, drops one, reaches, drops others) I've been having some of the girls share while they were reading, but it seems to make so much confusion.

Sup'r: It's good to note that you have the girls working with you. (Looks around) I see that you don't have a tape recorder. Wasn't one furnished to you?

Miss T: Yes...it's over there, but...well, I've been meaning to tell you about it. It just doesn't work. I think it's broken.

Sup'r: Let me check it. They should have been repaired before school began. Perhaps we missed this one. (Examines machine and cord) Oh, I see. You should have used the other cord. (Takes it from cover and plugs in) Now, let's try it. Oh, oh, here's a problem. (Flips tape over for proper threading) Now, you won't have any more trouble.

Miss T: Oh, I'm sure I won't. But then I'm not going to record their reading until they're more fluent. They stumble so.

Sup'r: With your travel abroad I'm sure they will improve as they have had more practice imitating you during choral practice.

Miss T: But I just can't get them to do choral practice. They tell me that Mrs. Tenure never does that and they just won't.

Sup'r: Oh, Mrs. Tenure...Have you tried any activity at any time?

Miss T: (breaks down) Mr. Gogo, I just can't do that. I feel so silly. It's just that my major was really biology. I only had a minor in French.

Sup'r: Why don't you try oral practice with the tape after you have modelled the dialog as demonstrated in our workshop. If you are hesitant about doing this, I could come in and do one of the activities for you during the last period.

Miss T: That would be so much help. Oh, will you do that sometime?

Sup'r: I'm always here to help, you know. How about 2:30 on Friday?

Miss T: That would be fine. Thank you.

Sup'r: Let me make a note of that. (He reaches for his pad. Miss T has books in right hand, reaches to shake hands with left, realizes mistake, shifts books, drops them, both reach for them.)

Scene II. "The Mystery of the Ruined Records"

Place: The Corridor of Babbling Brook School.

Narrator: Irate Mrs. Iman X. Pert, PTA President, (former French teacher by the traditional method) enters, with reluctant son, Algernon.

Algernon: (chewing bubble gum) Aw, Mom, do I have to come? I'll miss gym and I'm team captain today.

Mrs. Pert: Yes, Algie, I want you to stay. I think you should hear what I have to say to Mr. Gogo about your French class. (Enter supervisor) Oh, good morning, Mr. Gogo. I'm Mrs. Iman X Pert, president of the PTA, and I think you know my son, Algernon.

Sup'r: How do you do, Mrs. Pert. Good morning, Algie. (To Mrs. P) The principal tells me you have been in to see him.

Mrs. P: Oh, yes, and I visited the superintendent yesterday. Since I have an appointment with the president of the Board of Education tomorrow, I thought I'd stop in to see your first. I'm really terribly upset.

It's about Algernon's French class. His first six weeks' report was simply miserable, and he just seems to hate his French class. I really can't understand it. I just loved French. We learned to read all those lovely books, and conjugate all those lovely verbs - but Algie can't read a line yet, and can't conjugate a single verb.

Sup'r: But Mrs. Pert, this is only the sixth week of school!

Mrs. P: Well, we used to begin reading and conjugating right away--and furthermore, everything seems to be done orally in class. He never brings a book home; he says they aren't supposed to use their books yet. How can I help him at home if he never has anything to read or write? I believe that children should have homework to do. Since I had French in school I've been *so* anxious for Algie to start so that I could help him.

Sup'r: (Patiently) Mrs. Pert, Algie's French teacher is using the audio-lingual approach. The child learns to hear and imitate without seeing the words, so that his English habits will not interfere with developing the correct habits of French pronunciation.

Mrs. P: (Irate) Well, I never...what'll they think of next? I should think that if phonetic symbols are good enough for me they are good enough for Algie.

Sup'r: (Still patiently) Algie does have home work, Mrs. Pert, but in a foreign language, it's of a different kind. Doesn't Algie's teacher give him practice records to bring home at night so that he can practice orally?

Mrs. P: Yes, I think he did once, but they go so fast I can't keep up, and I haven't the faintest idea what they mean, and neither does Algie, apparently.

Sup'r: Well, Mrs. Pert, Algie's teacher goes over these materials many times in class, having explained the meaning so that the children know what they're saying. Algie, do you practice aloud at home? (Algie tries to get out)

Mrs. P: (Pulling him back) Yes, Algie, when do you practice? I haven't seen you with any records lately?

Sup'r: Let me ask you another question, Algie. Do you practice your French sounds in front of a mirror as Miss Trishard taught you to do? (Algie blows gum and hangs head)

Mrs. P: Algie, speak up!

Algie: Aw, gee, I left my records on the radiator one day, and they all melted.

Mrs. P: Well, young man, your father will take care of you this evening. (To Mr. G.) I'm so glad to have had this little talk with you and I understand the situation much better now. Some of the other ladies in the PTA are concerned about this problem and I would like them to hear what you have to say.

Sup'r: When would you like to meet, Mrs. Pert?

Mrs. P: I think that the ladies agreed that Friday at 2:30 would be a good time and we have it all arranged. Goodbye, Mr. Gogo. Thank you so much. Come along, Algernon.

Narrator: Mrs. Pert sails out as Mr. G. tries to tell her that he already has an appointment at 2:30 on Friday.)

Scene III: "Teacher Evaluation"

Narrator: In the suprevisor's office.

Supervisor: Come into my office, Miss Browbeaten. I am glad I have time to see you now and that I had time to visit with you and your class this morning. (teacher sits down)

Sup'r: You realize that a teacher should do very careful planning for his daily teaching situations. I hope you know what the basic components of a good lesson plan are. Do you?

Teacher: Yes, Mr. Gogo, in planning a good lesson we should begin with a....

Sup'r: Yes, we plan in terms of a purpose that is definite and worthwhile. Your pupils should be informed of this purpose; it should be understood by them and also accepted by them. Motivation should be an essential part of your lesson plan. You certainly should know that it is important to develop a state of readiness in your pupils for what you are going to teach them. Following your motivational activity you should have formulated a list of activities, of procedures and of the instructional materials that you planned to utilize to implement your activities. The assignment for the following day should also have a part in your lesson plan. You should have devoted more time to the making of your assignment. Your students should have known exactly what they were supposed to do, how they were supposed to do it, and why they were supposed to do it. Why didn't you plan for an evaluation of your teaching? Isn't an evaluation or a summary an important part of a lesson plan? Shouldn't we evaluate with the pupils in terms of the aims to be achieved?

Teacher: Yes, I think your points are well taken, but I feel that perhaps you are evaluating my performance on the basis of only one visitation. Do you think that this is fair?

Sup'r: This is not a question of fairness, Miss Browbeaten. If in my next visitation I see no effort on your part to implement these suggestions, I shall recommend to your principal that you be required to submit your daily lesson plans in writing.

(TEN MINUTES LATER)

Sup'r: Do you realize, Miss Browbeaten, that the teacher's voice is the most important of the audio aids because the students hear that more frequently than anything else? Why don't you speak with greater expression in your voice?

Teacher: I'm sorry that you say that, Mr. Gogo, because I have felt that this was one of my strong points. Could you suggest what I could do to improve this short coming?

Sup'r: Put more emphasis on variation of expression in your voice. And also, are you budgeting your class time wisely? Are you devoting at least five minutes at the beginning of the period to review? In this review are you using the target language? Are you devoting appreciably twenty minutes each period to dialogue presentation and drill? Are you devoting from ten to fifteen minutes to pattern drills? Are you varying your drill procedures? Are you making use of full choral, half choral, small group and individual responses? Are you involving your pupils in chain dialogue? Are you devoting from five to ten minutes to writing writing activity every period? Are you engaging your pupils in any group singing during the period? Are you providing several minutes at the end of the period for the pupils to use the English language in order to clarify anything done during the period in the target language?

Teacher: Oh, could I possibly do all of those thing in one period?

Sup'r: In concluding this conference do you have any problems or concerns which you wish to share with me? Is there anything I can do to help you?

Teacher: There certainly is! Drop Dead!

Scene IV: (In the consultant's office)

Sup'r: Wouldn't you know! I've made three appointments for Friday afternoon at 2:30. Good afternoon, Dr. Toggman, how are you?

Superintendent: Fine, fine, Mr. Gogo. How are you getting along?

Sup'r: Okay, I guess. What can I do for you?

Superintendent: I just got a call from Washington--Senator Fogghorne's office. That senate subcommittee hearing to be held here next Friday on the Bilingual Education Act--I've been asked to testify. Write me a position paper on it. I've got to turn it in for the record when I testify.

Sup'r: But...but...

Superintendent: (continuing) Say that I am in favor and will support any pilot program that may prove that the reading skills of the bilingual child can be enhanced by teaching through Spanish. Tell them about our Spanish program and about the Federally funded projects in which we participate: Title I, C.A.P., N.Y.C., Titles II and III and so forth. Here's an excerpt of the senate bill for you to read. Get the other information from Publications. Turn it in to my secretary by five p.m. Thursday. I'll read it Friday morning and put in an opening and closing paragraph and have my secretary zerox 50 copies for the press and for those at the hearing.

Sup'r: But I've got three appointments for Thursday.

Superintendent: Cancel them. Write eight or ten pages... whatever it takes to cover the subject. (Exit)

Sup'r: (Picks up phone and calls secretary) Sandy? Do me a favor and make three phone calls for me, will you? Yeah, I've got to cancel three appointments that I have for tomorrow. Call Dave Nickeran and tell him...

END

Narrator: And now I am sure that we all agree with this pearl of wisdom--"There's no vision like supervision."

(Song by cast)

THERE'S NO VISION LIKE SUPER-VISION
("There's No Business Like Show Business")

There's no vision like SUPER-VISION!
There's no vision we know.
Everything about it is fantastic!
Bureaucratic, idocratic, - - - - - WOW!!!
Never more will we need be bombastic!
We're now elastic!
We've got know'how!

There's no vision like SUPER-VISION!
There's no vision we know.
Leadership will well equip us for the test.
We'll give our best now at Burns' request!
We'll find out September
If we're really blessed
With real leadership skill.

APPENDIX C REACHING CONSENSUS--THE NASA MOON PROJECT

Consensus is a method employed by the discussion groups to formulate a written response answering a question having to do with the preceding lecture.

How effective is consensus? How long does it take to reach consensus? Where can consensus be used? What are the pitfalls in using consensus? Can the outcome of consensus be measured?

To find answers to the above questions, an experiment was tried with the five groups in this institute in using consensus where the results were measured, both before and after. The experiment is known as the NASA Moon Survival Exercise.

The experiment involves the participants' decisions in ranking, in order of importance, certain items needed for a two-hundred mile hike on the surface of the moon. The end result of such a hike would be survival for the individual and his group.

The moon trek has two advantages: The moon and its atmosphere is something about which foreign language teachers do not know too much; the decisions made about the items do not have a personal effect on us here on earth.

Answers to the items ranked were compared with answers provided by the astronauts stationed at NASA, Houston, Texas. Their knowledge about the moon is not questioned--they will be making a trip to the moon within two years.

The experiment was conducted to prove the hypothesis that a group of teachers can score as well or better on the moon experiment as can the best informed members in each group. Also, that the group score would show a substantial increase over the average individual scores. Perhaps of more importance, however, was the fact that every individual's opinion was heard. When individual teachers agree on an answer, they also commit themselves and would be less likely to balk later on.

The time limit to reach a decision was approximately fifteen minutes on an individual basis and thirty minutes on a group basis. Some individuals rank-ordered the fifteen items in five minutes. None of the groups took longer than thirty minutes to reach consensus; some took less than twenty minutes. Fifty participants and five groups of ten each participated.

The findings are as follows: the average score of individual members was 50.46 points, error factor. Error factor is the number of points off, either way, between the individual's rank of an item as compared to the rank given the item by the astronauts. If the participant ranked the box of matches number 10 and the astronauts ranked it number 14, the error factor for that item was 4 points. Whereas the average individual score was 50.46, the average group score was 27.4. Thus there was a gain of 23.06 or 46% when the group consensus was reached over the individual score. The best individual score was 20; the best group score was 18. The lower the error factor, the better the score is. The least gain by a group over individual scores was 10.2 points; the best gain was 35.4 points over individual scores. Five individuals out of fifty had scores higher than their respective groups. However, in comparing all the groups with the five most accurate individuals, the groups still showed a gain averaging 1.4 points.

Conslusion: This exercise shows that groups provide better answers 80% of the time than do well-informed individuals. Although the process of consensus is slow, the outcome has more lasting effects.

Group consensus can be employed in the selection of textbooks, for example. It is also excellent in choosing activities for in-service training. Teachers are less apt to criticize activities which they themselves have approved as part of a program. More important still, because they have agreed, they are more committed to carrying them out.

When time is not a very important factor, and when it is desirable to satisfy the individual needs of all concerned, group consensus can be the most useful way of arriving at decisions.

QUOTABLE QUOTES FROM DR. BURNS' LECTURES

1. Leadership is getting the work done efficiently in terms of quantity, quality, cost and time, and getting it done with the greatest satisfaction to all concerned, including the leader.
2. Translating "know-how" into action is the job of management.
3. If there were no problems, there would be no supervisors.
4. Every problem has its ancestry.
5. We are first and foremost managers of work.
6. Give help not hell.
7. Whether we manage anyone else we have to manage ourselves and the work we have to do. If we have subordinates, then we have a much bigger job.
8. It's a great day when a person gets coordinated with his boss.
9. Enthuse people to do things beyond what they are able to do.
10. "Victory is never achieved by force of arms alone. It is determined by the feelings in every soldier, the feelings in you and me." Tolstoy: WAR AND PEACE
11. It's the powerful feelings that affect the behavior of people.
12. All behavior is caused.
13. A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still.
14. "True efficiency stems from active and willing cooperation of people." Woodrow Wilson
15. There is a difference between deciding an issue and settling it.
16. People can do only what they know and understand.
17. Progress comes from good reasons giving way to better.
18. The faintest writing is better than the fondest memory.
19. It's not what you tell them that counts. It's what they understand and accept.

20. There is no correlation between leadership and intelligence.
21. We look for simple answers to complex questions.
22. People remember 40% of what they hear; 55% of what they see; 70% of what they hear and see.
23. In examining the key areas for results first determine the "isness and oughtness" of the situation.

THE VOCABULARY OF LEADERSHIP

1. Attitudinal leadership: How a leader sees himself carrying out his role.
2. Benevolent autocrat: The leader who dominates the group by making himself the source of all standards of production. He sees failure to live up to these standards as personal disloyalty to him.
3. Diagnostic sensitivity: The ability to size up the situation, determine the needs, and to choose the correct pattern of leadership.
4. Emergent leader: One who develops within the group because he seems to understand and identify with the goals which his peers accept.
5. Expertise: Outstanding knowledge within a particular field which enables one to deal effectively with a problem related to that field.
6. Feed back: Evaluation to show the individual (or group) not only the consequences of his action, but also how his action achieved the consequences.
7. Group dynamics: The pattern of forces existing within a group which are determining the behavior of the group and its members.
8. Hidden agenda: Any purposes or goals, either recognized or subconscious, held by a member or members of a group that are at variance with the avowed purposes of the designated leader.
9. Hip pocket solution: The leader's decision which he interjects into a group discussion when he thinks that an impasse has been reached and that the group is ready to accept his solution.
10. Marginal man: A person who stands on the margin between two groups, a "mugwump."
11. Processes: Complex patterns of behavior which permeate task-oriented activities. They are illustrated by decision making, planning, thinking, suggesting, coordinating, and communicating.
12. Status leader: One who has been appointed to the position by someone with authority, but one who is not a member of the group. The appointment may have been made on a basis other than ability.
13. Tolerance for turbulence: The ability to withstand and deal effectively with the resistance, fear, anxiety, and dislocations that are produced by change in an organization.

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THE CULTURE COMMITTEE

FINAL REPORT

SUMMER - 1967

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THE CULTURE COMMITTEE
FINAL REPORT
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A foreign language may, as any other subject, be taught per se with many attendant values. How much more profitable it is when the subject has a direct connection with people, especially with people of another culture! The usual texts give vocabularies in detail and rather complete indices with grammar. A correspondingly complete outline of culture, however, is frequently missing; and many examinations of procedures, materials and objectives in the classroom bring this shortcoming constantly to one's attention.

It is in this light that this report is submitted. Without question, the chief task of the teacher of a foreign language is the teaching of that language. Since language and culture are inextricably bound together, serious attention to culture is surely worthy of a daily place for students and those who are to pass along the language skills.

During the weeks preceding the arrival of the guest lecturer, Dr. Joseph Michel, the members of the committee read widely on the subject in preparation for a presentation to the other members of the institute. This, then, constitutes the first part of the report.

PRELIMINARY REPORT

Definitions

In his book, CULTURE AND PERSONALITY, Dr. Anthony F. Wallace states that the student of culture should realize that dozens, if not hundreds, of respectable definitions exist. There appears to be little contradiction in the many definitions. What makes them unique is the degree to which each involves the various aspects of man's existence. Just a few are listed to serve as examples:

> The total way of life shared by those who live in the same society (Cornfield R. - p.124)
>
> All those historically created designs for living, explicit and implicit, rational and irrational, and non-rational, which exist at any given time as potential guides for the behavior of man (Taylor, E. - p. 1)

> All those artificial objects, institutions, modes of life or thought which are not particularly individual but which characterize a group and have both spatial and temporal contiguity. (Wallis, W.-p. 158)

Howard Lee Nostrand helps clarify the issue by distinguishing between the concept of society and the concept of culture in his article "Teaching the Sociocultural Context of a Foreign Language and Literature." Though both of these abstractions are interrelated and focus on the same universe of data, he indicates certain differences between the two which, if understood and considered, will aid the learner greatly in understanding the users of the target language.

Nelson Brooks, in his article "Culture and Language Instruction" further aids in clarification of this topic by distinguishing clearly between aspects of culture, or, as he terms them, "Deep Culture" and "Formal Culture." Deep culture refers to the thoughts and beliefs and actions, the concerns and hopes and worries, the personal values, the minor vanities and the half-serious superstitions, the subtle gradations of interpersonal relationships as expressed in actions and words, the day-by-day details of life as it is lived. Formal culture, on the other hand, refers to the products of artistic endeavor, achievements of intellectual and artistic genius, deeds of heroic valor and concepts of lofty spirit, and various modes of significant thought.

Objectives

The general objective of culture development in the foreign language curriculum is, to paraphrase Dr. Howard Nostrand, to bring about a more enlightening treatment of the sociocultural context in the teaching of foreign languages so that the language sequences in a curriculum may make a strong contribution toward cross-cultural understanding and communication.

In keeping with this broad, definitive objective, the committee's goal shall be to present three areas of culture development which are suitable for classroom presentation in an attempt to create cross-cultural understanding.

A. Treatment of the cultural patterns of the total society.

1. The value system of the society
2. The society's assumptions about reality
3. Achievements which exist as the substance of the academic fields

4. Art forms which are indicative of the culture.
5. The linguistic aspects of the language itself and its kinesics

B. The treatment of the social institutions of the society

1. Interpersonal relationships
2. Amenities, taboos and social stratification
3. Family structure
4. Religious beliefs and practices
5. Economic structure
6. Political and judicial structure
7. The educational system
8. Intellectual and esthetic pursuits
9. Communication and transportation

C. Treatment of the individual as a personality in his society

1. The balance of motivation
2. Distribution of the individual's efforts
3. Defense and adjustment mechanisms in relation to self, society and associates
4. Other determinants of behavior - e.g. genetics, nutrition

Media at Elementary Stages

In selecting media of presentation, the teacher should keep the student's point of view in mind. If cross-cultural understanding is to be attained, the perspective should be from the standpoint of everyday life, not just that of the quaint and the unusual.

Visual materials add interest and aid in understanding and retention. These materials might include, for example, simple line drawings, reproductions of paintings, posters, flannel boards, and puppets.

Audio-visual materials add to the visual interest. The motion picture is an excellent tool in the teaching of both deep and formal culture. It excels at making an experience vivid. It can be held on the "still" position for discussion. It may be played without sound to concentrate on kinesics, scenery, or recitation of the dialogue by the students.

Films are very helpful in presenting situational dialogues. These dialogues depicting social situations should give opportunities to treat the amenities and taboos which a foreigner may encounter. Such dialogues gradually complete a description of particular aspects of the society and relate these aspects to the values of the culture. The learner needs to observe not only the exterior patterns of behavior but also the interpretation put upon them, their symbolic meaning.

Other means of imparting culture effectively are found in songs, skits, and short stories. Easy-to-understand literature thus presented can illustrate cultural features ranging from kinesics to main values.

Different kinds of realia add interest and a feeling for the culture of the people. A short discussion of these catches the attention of the students and helps to set the atmosphere of the foreign culture in the classroom.

One of the most important things to remember in teaching culture is that the learner will often draw a contrary-to-fact inference from the example he sees, interpreting it from his own cultural viewpoint, unless he is given a clear explanation of the cultural regularity in the foreign culture.

Media at Upper Levels - Part I

Professor Nelson Brooks says that formal culture "refers to the products of artistic endeavor, achievements of intellectual and artistic genius, deeds of heroic valor and concepts of lofty spirit..." (Teachers Notebook in Modern Foreign Languages - 1966)

Among the principal phases of formal culture are

1. The arts (literature, painting, sculpture, architecture, dancing)
2. Music (history, technique, musical performances)
3. Folklore
4. Institutions (e.g. the educational structure of a country)
5. Political organization
6. Social organization
7. Economics (finance, commerce, industry)

Formal culture, in general, is less involved than deep culture in communication (that is, language, paralanguage and kinesics). For this reason the basic audio-visual-lingual courses are less concerned with formal culture than with deep culture.

Furthermore, the study and complete comprehension of formal culture is too profound and too extensive to be dealt with in a purely incidental manner. A person who hears the music of "Kai Plazapi" (Argentine folkloric music - chacarera of Quechua origin) and who knows nothing of its background, may find it uninteresting and never learn to appreciate it in any way. *Cante jondo* might even cause cultural shock if heard the first time without explanation, although it is deeply embedded in the culture of Spain.

When the study of formal culture is begun, it is generally considered preferable for the students to have achieved a good degree of aural and reading comprehension and oral expression so that they can take advantage of the favorable linguistic tools and have no serious obstacles. If the level of achievement of the students is sufficient for conducting the course in the target language, the linguistic objectives can be further developed during the acquisition of formal cultural information. The teaching of formal culture is obviously directed toward understanding the culture of the target language, but it need not be narrow in its viewpoints.

Besides the teacher's personal knowledge, which is very necessary and very important, there are many valuable aids at his disposal. Among these are:

1. Reference books, especially those in the target language
2. Visiting speakers who are well informed on the subject in question (These may include exchange students and other native speakers)
3. Slides, transparencies, and instructional films
4. Visits to museums
5. Visits to foreign institutions if any exist in the vicinity
6. Visits to foreign restaurants and theaters.

Whether literature is to be the main subject of a so-called level or simply one of the media, both types of culture (deep and formal) may be intimately involved. Perhaps the latter (formal) will dominate, because the literary achievement of a people is considered an important phase of formal culture.

The teacher who is trying to follow a logical sequence of the audio-visual-lingual approach need not be alarmed by the idea of teaching literature as classics. Until the students have really acquired superior reading facility, they do not have to be forced into the reading of the so-called classics in which the vocabulary and the linguistic structures are beyond their level of achievement. Fortunately teachers have at their disposal collections of reading material which have been carefully prepared to facilitate the development of the reading objective, including the appreciation of the literature of the language.

If the teacher wants material which is considered more "classical", he can find specially prepared student editions (with simplified vocabulary) such as Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme by Moliere or Les Miserables by Victor Hugo.

In literature, as in the other phases of formal culture, it is not difficult for the teacher to point out the universal qualities and consequently to avoid a narrow, nationalistic point of view.

Media at Upper Levels - Part 2

A. Valdman says that the weakest spot in our FL program is in the teaching of culture. We suggest that there are ways to strengthen this shortcoming. Our upper level FL student can now understand the spoken written language and can express himself fairly well in the target language. He has arrived at the point of literary study which we contend can not be entirely understood without reference to the culture that produces it. The elements of literature bring something from outside to the work of art. Our problem, simply stated by A. Valdman, is "How do we successfully teach an understanding of one culture to another?"

Different objectives determine content and perhaps even presentation. Should the objective be a "stepping stone to a foreign literature," he still needs to break free from the EMU's* of his native language. He must go beyond the usual cultural molds learned by everyone in the process of "Enculturation." FL for education must be cultural patterning, plus. To fully understand the literature, he can not pole-vault the bridge between language and literature; rather must he wade barefoot through the stream of basic cultural content.

There are three streams influencing cultural content: 1) romantic cliches, 2) literature and achievement of target culture, 3) study of culture as structured system of patterned behavior. Turn these to advantage by teaching authentic cultural content, and by exploding false notions and prejudicial distortions in the framework of their setting. When full description of major cultures are lacking, we can carefully analyze and interpret to fill in the gap.

When FL study was to reach only the literary classics of the target culture, culture meant possessing the speech, knowledge, and manners of those who studied the classics. Our 20th century point of view shows how narrow is such use of a FL.

To present achievement of a culture, we need to know vicariously their heroes, what they consider honorable, courageous, praiseworthy. When target and native words differ in connotation, we teach target content.

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*Elementary Meaning Unit

It is foolish to presume that you can teach through any means of presentation in a few contact hours everything that a person experiences in a lifetime as a member of a culture, but carefully selected experiences presented in a proper class climate will do much to achieve understanding.

In treating literature, we should apply perspectivism, i.e. penetrate the foreign mentality as far as possible. We should make an effort to help students understand the non-American without suffering from cultural shock. We want to develop a person who has a degree of appreciation of major literary works, not a literary critic, but one who adopts the point of view of the target culture and acquires the capacity to experience it artistically. This suggests preparing the student for the study of literary works, rather than watering down such literature.

A strong plea is also made that FL teachers spend time in the target culture to revive fading memories and to learn of new developments.

Evaluation of Culture

The most important evaluation possible lies in the observation of the fulfillment of both the general and the specific aims previously stated in this report. Other evaluative areas, too, rely upon observation and judgment of accomplishment, e.g. attainment or mastery of the paralinguistic or kinesic aspects of a language.

Professor Howard Nostrand, as a matter of fact, feels that culture is not sufficiently "operational" to permit testing. On the other hand, Professor Robert Lado believes that cross-cultural understanding is knowledge and that knowledge can be tested objectively. On the latter basis, the Northeast Conference's 1967 Working Committees recommended the testing of culture, either separately or as a part of the living language.

In their report, the NE Conference working committees held that "If the aim of understanding the foreign people has been realistically approached in class, students will be aware of and begin to have an appreciation for differences and similarities that exist between their 'way of life' and that of speakers of the foreign language. These cultural patterns will not have been made the object of lectures, but will have been gradually noted and assimilated along the way . . ."

A perusal of the pertinent literature reveals suggestions for several means of testing and types of test, with a wide range of objectivity inferred.

Margaret Mead, for example, suggests that in a foreign language class the teacher show two-thirds of a film from a foreign culture and then get the students to predict from their knowledge of the culture how the film will come out, what sort of ending the people of that culture would want.

Robert Lado offers several suggestions for the structuring of somewhat more objective evaluative instruments. As examples, he notes the "same versus different" type of question in which three actions are described, two of which have a significance in the foreign culture which is different from that in the native one; the student is to find that choice that bears the same significance in both the foreign culture and the native one. Another Lado device is the multiple choice: A soccer match is in progress in Spain. There is a moment of fast action, and most of the spectators stand up and whistle loudly. They are ...a) showing enthusiastic approval of the play, b) showing displeasure, c) showing relief after a moment of danger, d) asking for a repetition of the action, e) signaling the end of the game. Here the first choice represents a correct form for the native culture but a wrong one in the foreign case; the second choice is the meaning of that form in the native culture, that is, the right choice; the third alternative is a distractor that merely seems plausible from the context but is not right; the fourth and fifth are also incorrect meanings induced from the context.

Nelson Brooks finds a culture-testing device in the offering of conversational or situational fragments to the student who is to complete them correcly on the basis of his knowledge of the cultural significance of the context offered.

Finally, the real evaluation of cultural impact may not be susceptible of evaluation or measurement before the passage of many years during which the cultural implanting will have been germinating.

Teacher Preparation

Have you heard the rumor, a fairly persistent one - kept alive, no doubt, by the more envious members of the teaching profession - that the foreign language teachers consider themselves to be the elite members of the school staff? Naturally, we are too humble to admit that we *are*, but after surveying what is implied by a thorough preparation for the teaching of the culture of a foreign people through its language, it seems that we *could* truly be the elite, if in fact we are not now.

If we accept as axiomatic that 1) culture is inseparable from language, 2) the language teacher must have superior proficiency in the four skills of such language, and 3) such skills are best acquired at the earliest possible age - and here, parenthetically, let me quote what Theodore Andersson has to say in his contribution, "The Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages", to Joseph Michel's anthology, *Foreign Language Teaching* (1967): "The education of the future teacher of modern foreign languages often begins *with the first utterances he hears and begins to imitate*." I ask you, what other discipline expects its teachers to start their preparation in the cradle and continue it for the rest of their lives?

Of course, the fact that we have been found wanting, the fact that our teacher preparation is woefully inadequate we can try to keep quietly *entre nous* while we valiantly try to make reparations for the past and *preparations* for the future.

The reparations we can attempt by providing in-service training, workshops, institutes, leaves of absence and fellowships for study abroad, extension courses and various other procedures which our urgent need will no doubt help us invent.

As to the preparations, we would do well to heed what Nelson Brooks says in his chapter on "Building a Profession." According to Brooks, the language teacher has not arrived until he is a *linguist*. To be a proper linguist (i.e., when he *knows what* he is doing, and *why*, and *how* to do it), the future teacher must study and understand psychology, descriptive linguistics, cultural anthropology, philosophy, philology and literature. The course is long and arduous; and since culture and language are not static, but keep evolving, the future teacher must be prepared to continue assimilating his subject matter throughout a lifetime.

So -- we had better start looking around for our future linquists. We should try to find some who have had a head start, so to speak. Where shall we find them? In the cradles of our ethnic groups. This already encultured reservoir of potential language teachers constitutes one of our richest national resources.

Having identified the future teachers at an early age, we must nurture them solicitously through FLES and through carefully articulated courses from the junior high through the senior high. By the time they reach college age, they should be able to demonstrate high proficiency in tests designed to evaluate their mastery of the four basic skills.

The college years will be spent in developing themselves in the humanities, ideally taking the majority of such courses in the target language. Naturally, we expect that the junior year will be taken in residence abroad where total immersion in the culture will be assured.

So far, the prospective teacher has not learned anything about teaching per se, except perhaps by observation and analysis of the performance of his own teachers, the exceptionally gifted and the less than inspiring ones. Now he will take a fifth year of study in an M.A.T.* program where he will concentrate on methodology and actually put his learning into practice in the classroom of a cooperating school for at least one semester, under the careful supervision of an experienced master teacher.

At this point the astute novice will realize that all his schooling was merely preliminary to a lifelong preparation for the task which we guardians of the flame can render joyous by encouraging him to attend concerts, the ballet, the opera; to travel and visit art galleries and museums; to read and compare literatures, newspapers, magazines and professional journals.

Most importantly, we can show by our enthusiastic, humanistic attitude toward our profession that this never-ending preparation for it is eminently worthwhile and rewarding.

DR. JOSEPH MICHEL

Joseph Michel, of the University of Texas faculty, received his B.A. degree at DeLaSalle College in Louisiana in 1944. He continued his studies in Universidad de Nuevo Leon in Monterrey, Mexico, and received his M.A. degree from the Universidad Nacional de Mexico in 1947, with majors in Latin American and Spanish Literature. He earned his Ph.D. in 1961 at the University of New Mexico, with studies in Spanish Literature, Latin American Literature, French and Linguistics.

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* Master of Arts in Teaching

He has had teaching experiences in elementary and high school as well as college. He is a former FL director for the New Mexico State Department of Education, and has directed summer workshops both here and in Latin American countries. He is at present director of the Foreign Language Education Center at Texas University, professor of FL teaching methodology, and director of the program of Ph.D. degrees for research specialists in FL - all in the University of Texas.

Doctor Michel is presently consultant to MLA and to the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. He was a Fulbright lecturer at the universities of Madrid, Santiago, and Aviedo, Spain, his topic being "Spanish Influence in the American Southwest". He has conducted ten-day workshops in Essex, England, and in Cairo, Egypt, on "Language and Language Teaching."

As an author, Dr. Michel has written almost a score of articles for publication in FL journals and has written or colloborated in writing eight books in the field of Spanish and Spanish teaching.

Culture and Its Nature - Lecture # 1

Dr. Michel says that according to Samuel Butler a definition is "a wall of words around a chaos of an idea". Our lecturer continued by saying that everything concerning man is a part of culture. For a more complete understanding he organized the elements of culture into the following categories:

Elements of Culture

1. Political, governmental
2. Art
    a. Literature
    b. Music
    c. Dancing
    d. Painting
    e. Sculpturing
3. Language
4. Economics
    a. Finance
    b. Commerce

5. Social organizations
    a. Individual
    b. Family
6. Geography
    a. Physical
    b. Natural resources
7. History
8. Institutions
    a. School
    b. Family
    c. Religion
    d. Military
    e. Professions
9. Communications
    a. Tourism
    b. Transportation
10. Folklore & customs
11. Industry & technology
12. Values
    a. Heroes
    b. Statue symbols
    c. Authority
    d. Our view of world
    e. Our view of self
    f. Taboos
13. Subsistence
    a. Shelter
    b. Food
    c. Clothing
    d. Tools

Culture, then, is not exclusively the domain of the foreign language teacher but that of the cultural anthropologist or sociologist. The foreign language teacher should teach culture along with language, but he cannot pretend to be teaching the whole field of culture. He is basically a foreign language teacher.

There is a "culture box" that surrounds and permeates us, pre-determining our actions and our judgments.

Several fallacies about culture can be detrimental to language learning. These fallacies include:

1. False generalizations. The teacher needs to remember that it is the pattern that makes the difference, not the individual act that does so.
2. Caricature syndrome. The teacher must guard against pulling one cultural feature out of perspective and distorting the whole picture.
3. Fact fallacy. In many classes dull facts, often historical, are taught without any attempt at evaluation.

4. *Superiority complex factor*. Some teachers still tend to impart to either their own culture or to others an attitude of superiority.

5. *Wrong conclusion*. An incorrect inference may be drawn from cultural cues. An example of this is the Lilliputians' conclusion that Gulliver's watch was his god.

6. *Over-identification*. This is the fallacy that causes one to put up his guard and say, "Oh, that doesn't apply to me!"

Language and Culture - Lecture # 2

Language is a system of symbols in the process of communication consisting of thoughts, emotions and feelings. It may be oral, written or gestural, but is basically oral.

Language is a process of the following steps:

Speaker		Hearer
Stimulus		Stimulus
	Neurological	
Encoding		Decoding
Phonation	Physiological	Audition
	Physical	

Language consists of two aspects: language as language (a thought) and language as speech (a social noise).

The functions of language are: informative, aesthetic, expressive, persuasive, and exploratory.

Methodology is one of the determining factors of what is taught, e.g. the use of the audio-lingual approach utilizes the dialogue.

There must be a balanced cultural content and the teacher must examine texts to see that the four language skills and five functions of language are also included.

Style is what the individual picks from the reservoir of language.

Language is the social manifestation of society. Language limits man, and it must exist in order to allow man to express concepts.

Language, culture, society and civilization are inseparable. There is an American culture because there is an American language.

The problem which confronts the teacher is not so much how to teach culture but what to teach.

The Teaching of Culture - Lecture # 3.

1. What should we teach?
    - A. Facts of literature, geography, etc.
    - B. Personal, family, and national values
        1. Simple knowledge
        2. As behavior values - courtesy, greetings, leavetaking, proper family behavior (in the bilingual, this can be very tricky when he has to deal with moral values)
    - C. Attitudes - tolerance toward differences between two cultures
        1. Overtly; e.g. piñata for a party (when used? how used? how constructed? demonstrate its use)
        2. Covertly - use or reference without explanation Example: I'll meet you at the drugstore. (word drugstore is of American culture and cannot be culturally translated as botica) This indicates the advantage of teaching culture in the target language.
        3. Using a cultural island - pictures, realia, student reports, language clubs, television, bulletin boards, books, plays, dances, songs

II. Criteria for teaching.
    - A. Judging importance of culture element in content or pattern
    - B. Interest of students in cultural facet, i.e. bullfighting is fascinating subject
    - C. Things that are culturally universal, e.g. education (differences should be pointed out without breaking the trend of development)
    - D. Maintain balance of values - e.g. literature, art, institutions
    - E. Work for articulation in regard to culture - in FLES, FLJH, and FLHS

III. Teacher preparation.
    A. Fewer static "civilization" courses and more emphasis on dynamic culture that the teacher can use in class
    B. Less emphasis on literature that is inapplicable to today's situation
    C. Teacher travel is indispensable for better understanding of other cultures
    D. All future FL teachers need contact with a native-speaking teacher some time during their preparation

IV. The reason for teaching culture is to create an empathy to broaden the perspective of students

* * * * * * * * * * * *

Our topic has been "Culture", a term with many interpretations, as has been seen. We have found the subject extensive and captivating as we have realized the possible advantage of a fuller impact of culture in FL education.

With the assistance of Dr. Michel, the staff, and the participants, we are challenged to offer greater significance to the study of foreign languages.

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TESTING AND CERTIFICATION

PAQUETTES COMMITTEE REPORT

William Beck, Illinois
John Bochman, Arizona
Warren Born, New York
Robert Cloos, New Jersey
Arturo Gutiérrez, Texas
Robert LaBrie, Michigan
Sarah LaDuca, New York
Rebecca Strassner, New Jersey
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PAQUETTE COMMITTEE REPORT

Introduction:

The Lecturer Committee assigned to Mr. F. André Paquette, with Dr. William [illegible] as staff advisor, had the specific responsibility of preparing itself and the entire institute for an intensive two-day meeting with the lecturer and his four announced topics: Testing, Teacher Certification, Professional Organizations, and the Teaching of Literature.

The mutually exclusive nature of the topics suggested a division of the committee into three sub-groups, one for each of the first three topics--Testing, Teacher Certification, and Professional Organizations. It became evident in the course of preparation that it was not at all certain that Mr. Paquette would have time to discuss literature within the span of his two-day visit. For practical purposes, therefore, the committee did not concern itself with the Teaching of Literature.

In effect, the sub-committees functioned side-by-side and in close and frequent communication with one another. The division of labor simplified and accelerated the discharge of collective responsibilities: to read as extensively as possible in the assigned areas, to prepare an oral report, to act as discussion leaders, to edit the tapes of Mr. Paquett's presentations and make a one hour recorded summary of the lectures available to the participants, and to prepare a final written report.

The committee acted to effect unity and coherence in its total performance by preparing a packet of materials for each participant, supplying, in advance, as much pertinent information as possible in all three areas. The packet was designed to help do what could not be done within the framework of a single advance oral report--prepare the participants adequately in each of the areas.

Prior to Mr. Paquett's arrival the sub-committees collected questions of interest to the participants on each of the topics. These were presented to Mr. Paquette at our first meeting with him on July 7, the evening before his first lecture.

This report reflects the activities of the committee in its endeavors to work with Mr. Paquette:

a. Prior to his arrival
b. During his visit
c. Subsequent to his departure

Biographical Information:

F. Andre Paquette was raised in New England in and of the French-Canadian environment. He was trained as a secondary school teacher. Like all of us, he attended an NDEA Institute, the 1959-60 academic-year French Institute at the University of Massachusetts. Following that, as a young man in his mid-twenties, he was appointed to the position of State Supervisor of Foreign Languages in the State of New Hampshire. He held this post for three years.

His next position took him to a small New York college where he taught French and methods of teaching and was instrumental in setting up a teacher training program. Very early, in the first year of this college-teaching position, he was appointed to the Modern Language Association where, as Mr. Noble puts it, his jobs piled up one upon the other. He has been deeply involved in testing, in setting up regional meetings on certification of teachers, and in designing research projects.

Some top authorities in foreign language instruction say that Andre Paquette has the broadest background of anyone in the United States on what is going on in the entire foreign language area. It has been said that Mr. Paquette is an encyclopedia of foreign language activities in the United States today.

Summary of Committee Activities: Testing

The sub-committee assigned the task of orienting the Institute participants to the types and purposes of foreign language testing pursued this objective through a varied approach. Initially, the committee formulated and distributed a survey form designed to determine the participants' familiarity with various standardized foreign language tests. The tabulated results, which are a part of this document, a glossary of test and measurement terminology, and two brochures describing the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery were made a part of a general information folder which was distributed to all participants.

As an additional orientation activity, the committee made an oral presentation to the group. First, the results of the survey were explained, and certain terms peculiar to testing were elucidated audio-visually. Institute participants were also exposed to the history and purposes of the FLAB and possible uses of test scores by local school districts. This was followed by the administration of the FLAB to the participants for the purpose of familiarizing them with this test.

As a post-Paquette presentation, the committee shared with the group the specific experiences of a representative school district in the administration of the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery and the Modern Language Association Cooperative Foreign Language Tests (Listening and Reading). The particular uses of the test results in strengthening the total foreign language program of that district were also explained.

The results of the survey showed that few of the participants were familiar with the Common Concepts Foreign Language Test (California Test Bureau). Therefore, the committee administered the CCFLT in French, German, and Spanish to participants representing each language group in order to acquaint them with the test. Participant reactions were solicited and a statement of these reactions was forwarded to the California Test Bureau.

Additionally, all participants were provided with the first draft of A Handbook on Testing for the Classroom Teacher of French (German or Spanish), which is being developed under the supervision of the Modern Language Association under contract with the United States Office of Education. The participants were asked to offer constructive criticism regarding the presentation of the handbook with specific concentration on the portions dealing with "Preparing Foreign Language Test Items" and "Sample Test Items." These criticisms of the handbook were collated by the committee and forwarded to Mr. F. André Paquette.

RESULTS OF PARTICIPANT SURVEY ON TEST FAMILIARITY

NDEA FL Leadership Institute
Central Washington State College
Ellensburg, Washington
June 30, 1967

Name___________________

Please indicate the extent of your familiarity with each of the following tests by placing a check in column 1, 2 or 3. Then check column 4, if you would be willing to take that test or column 5 if you would be glad to take it.

Tests		Have adm. 1	Am fam. 2	Not fam. 3	Will take 4	Glad take 5
Carroll-Sapon, MODERN LANGUAGE APTITUTE TEST. Psychological Corporation		7	6	26	6	12
PIMSLEUR LANGUAGE APTITUDE BATTERY, Harcourt, Brace & World		5	25	12	7	18
MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOC. COOPERATIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEST: Form LA or LB (lower) Educational Testing Service	Fr.	12	15	7	4	5
	Ger.	8	8	7	4	3
	Ital.	1	6	9	1	0
	Russ.	5	7	8	1	2
	Span.	12	16	7	6	5
MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOC. COOPERATIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEST: Form MA or MB (upper) Educational Testing Service	Fr.	9	12	8	4	3
	Ger.	6	8	10	3	3
	Ital.	1	6	8	1	1
	Russ.	2	8	6	2	4
	Span.	11	16	7	7	6
PIMSLEUR PROFICIENCY TESTS, Harcourt, Brace & World	Fr.	1	20	13	2	6
	Ger.	1	12	10	2	7
	Span.	1	18	13	5	10
COMMON CONCEPTS FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEST, Calif. Test Bureau	Fr.	2	7	23	2	8
	Ger.	1	5	17	2	6
	Span.	2	7	22	6	10
Brooks, COOPERATIVE FR. LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST, Education Testing Service		3	2	30	8	6

Summary of Paquette Presentation: Testing

The MLA testing program, which began in 1959, has produced the *MLA Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students* and the *MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests* for beginning and intermediate students.

The Proficiency Tests exist in five languages: French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish. Forms A and B in each language were developed between 1959 and 1961. Within each language there are seven sections corresponding to the seven parts of the Qualification Statement. In 1964-65, a third form, Form C, was developed for all languages except Italian.

The tests were developed by three to four hundred members of the foreign language teaching profession in cooperation with Educational Testing Service, with the MLA providing the focus for the activity. The supervision of these tests has since 1959 been under the direction of an MLA Director of Testing, currently F. Andre Paquette.

Prof. Nelson Brooks of Yale University was responsible for directing the development of the Cooperative Tests in French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish. Since the MLA undertakes no major activity without having the direct advice of at least five members of the profession, a five-man committee advised and oversaw the work of the testing program from 1959 to 1965. Since 1965, a seven-man committee has been advising the work of the Cooperative Testing Program.

The Cooperative Tests are "non-secured" tests, i.e., they are sold to anyone by ETS, whereas the Proficiency Tests are "secured" tests, i.e., in effect you buy a *testing service*.

From 1959 through April, 1966, the Proficiency Tests were administered through what is called an "institutional" program, i.e., a college could order the tests in any arrangement for any date to administer at its convenience.

In April, 1966, it was decided to change the program from an "institutional" to a "national" testing program. The tests are now administered throughout the country at fixed, pre-determined test centers on fixed dates in February, April, June, September, and November, with three options. One must take all seven tests, the four skills tests, or the three knowledge area tests. The students must register for the tests six weeks in advance. The present arrangement seems to eliminate some of the weaknesses of institutional testing while accomodating students as well as colleges, school districts and other agencies that use Proficiency Test results in screening of applicants, etc.

Recently it became evident that the tests ought to be subjected to a criteria validation study. Thirty-five people, who had had nothing to do with the Qualification Statement or with the make-up of the tests, were asked to submit detailed criticism, which they did in a 366-page document. Among other weaknesses, the tests had never been submitted to native speakers to see how well they would perform on them, although the *educated native speaker* is mentioned in the Qualification Statement.

To carry out the criteria evaluation study, five research associates were named, one for each language. Directions were translated, tested for modification, and copies of the tests were taken abroad: to Spain and two Latin American countries, France, Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union. Many difficulties have been encountered in efforts to complete the project.

In a recent development, 500 students at the University of Illinois, on a systematic basis using rotation to eliminate practice effect, were given both forms of the Cooperative Tests to determine the gap, if any, between the L and M levels. The experiment seemed to prove that no additional level test is needed, but that additional forms of L and M would be desirable.

The testing program of the MLA could profit from a feed-back of scores from the schools, and the MLA is prepared to cooperate with schools in correcting speaking and writing tests submitted by random sampling for quality control.

In January, the MLA expects to issue a *Handbook on Testing for the Classroom Teacher of French (German, Italian, Russian, or Spanish)*. Fifteen foreign language classroom teachers in FLES, secondary, and college courses, three methods teachers, and several measurements specialists and commissioned writers are involved in the project. It is hoped that the *Handbook*, beyond meeting other needs, will be useful in promoting articulation.

Answers to Participants' Questions: Testing

1. What are some evaluation techniques for oral achievement--ones that do not require time-consuming replaying of individual test tapes?

A sound-production test calls for the use of a scoring sheet for individual or group. Simple items, such as production of a phoneme, can be scored unacceptable (0) or acceptable (1). Complex items, such as free response, are better scored by rating scales. A scale which permits quick categorization in a "live" test situation is:

3 entirely acceptable - no errors
2 good - one or two errors
1 inadequate - more than two errors
0 unacceptable - no response attempted.

A sound-production test need not be long; two to four minutes are often enough. Taping is an administrative convenience which can increase the reliability of scoring. Scoring of recorded tests needs no more time than scoring of paper-and-pencil tests, and sometimes the former is a more interesting process than the latter.

2. Regarding standardized tests: (a) What are some justifications for using them? (b) Some objections? (c) Should they be used as the sole base for a final grade in an FL course?

Test results become more meaningful the larger the population to which the scores relate. Standardized tests and their results help students and teachers to see their achievement and to evaluate their objectives in all FL skills from a broader standpoint. However, such tests may be unfair measures when used in schools where objectives differ. Also, there is the possibility that teaching methods become restricted to the limits of the test. Standardized test results should be one of a large number of factors contributing to a final grade in an FL course.

3. Does the law of mathematical probability have any effect on random filling of spaces on answer sheets?

The probability of answering all of twenty-four choice items correctly by random selection is astronomically low--somewhat like the chances of dealing a perfect hand in bridge. However, it is advisable to provide a correction-factor in transforming scores into grades. "No penalty for guessing" is a testing policy which will elicit greater student effort. The teacher provides the correction-factor, after administering the test, by adding to the point-score for a given grade a number of positive points, depending on the number of options in the test items. For example, it can be expected that a score of 5 will be obtainable by random selection on a twenty item test when each item provides four options. If it is a test of normal level of difficulty, the lowest passing score would be 8 or 9 rather than 3.

Summary of Committee Activities: Teacher Preparation and Certification

In preparation for F. Andre Paquett's presentation on teacher preparation and certification, the committee gave a short history of certification and prepared for distribution to the participants of the 1967 NDEA Foreign Language Leadership Institute the following list of certification requirements in the 23 states represented by the participants and staff members:

BASIC AND MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR AUTHORIZATION TO TEACH AN ACADEMIC FIELD OR SUBJECT

Legend:		
	BR	The basic requirement for teaching a subject full time, for a major fraction of the school day, or in the highest classification of schools.
	MR	The minimum requirement for teaching a subject part time, for a minor fraction of the school day, or in the lowest classification of schools.
	--	Not reported.
	M	A major.
	m	A minor.

	Language			Language	
	BR	MR		BR	MR
Arizona	30	18	Michigan	15	--
California	24	20	Nevada	M	--
Colorado	18		New Hampshire	30 (7)	12 (8)
Connecticut	18 (1)	18	New Jersey (9)	18	18
Florida	24 (2)	--	New Mexico	24	24
Hawaii	24	24	New York	24	24
Idaho	30	30	Ohio	(10)	20
Illinois	20	20	Oregon	20 (11)	20
Indiana	40	24	Pennsylvania	24 (12)	24 (12)
Iowa (3)	15 (4)	12	Texas	24	24
Maryland	24 (5)	18	Washington (13)	M	m
Mass. (6)	18	9			

(1) In addition to an introductory course.

(2) For the first language, 18 for the second.

(3) Iowa actually issues two authorizations: a general certificate and an approval statement. Institutions are authorized to file programs of teacher education specifying higher than minimum standards. When such programs are approved, even though they exceed the minimum state standards, in order to secure "regular approval" students must meet the institutional standards. Teachers devoting a major portion of time to a subject area are urged to have 30 s.h. of preparation.

(4) Deduction from BR: 3 s.h. for two years of high school training in the language taught.

(5) A single language: 18 s.h. are acceptable if the applicant completed 2 or more units of the language during the last three years of secondary school.

(6) All secondary school and special subject certificates have the same requirements: 18 s.h. in the major field (for authorization to teach full time) and 9 in minor subject fields (for authorization to teach minor subject fields up to 50% of total teaching time). A certificate is issued for each subject or field requested (after meeting all the requirements). Thus an applicant who qualifies in two major fields may apply and receive two certificates, one for each field.

(7) Thirty in the area, 18 in the specific subject taught.

(8) In the specific language.

(9) For permanent certification, the 18 s.h. must be raised to 24. No further requirement in the 30 s.h. field.

(10) Latin, 12; French, Spanish, or German, 20.

(11) Required in each language taught.

(12) Also pass four-skills part of MLA proficiency test.

(13) Graduates of Washington institutions now obtain a provisional teaching certificate which is valid for teaching K-12. This should not be interpreted to mean that holders of these certificates have not met certain requirements in major or minor subject fields. State Board of Education accreditation of Junior and Senior High Schools is one of the controls which influence assignment of teaching to their proper fields. Beginning teacher assignments are limited to levels and subject recommended by the institution.

Summary of Paquette Presentation: Teacher Preparation and Certification

Foreign language teachers are expected to relate to the central purpose of American education, which is, according to the NEA's policy commission, to teach students to think. Students today expect us to be dynamic, concerned, interested, sympathetic, adult, understanding, etc. If students are demanding, foreign language teachers will find their colleagues even more so.

What is the competence needed to be effective members of the foreign language profession? What are the professional and personal qualities which our colleagues require and admire? First, they expect demonstrated proficiency above minimal standards in the seven areas of the MLA Qualification Statement for secondary teachers of foreign languages. In addition, foreign language teachers must demonstrate that they are mature, well-educated persons, capable of professional and personal growth.

In the field of pre-service training, many have taught methods courses and supervised teachers in institutions of higher education. One cannot expect to turn out experienced teachers. Pre-service training is not designed for this.

Other areas of professional preparation are knowledge of present day objectives, understanding of methods, techniques for reaching those objectives, knowledge of specialized techniques in the utilization of educational media, relationship of modern foreign language study to other areas of the curriculum, and the ability to evaluate professional literature. This last objective is rarely achieved. There is some doubt that professional literature is ever called to the attention of a great number of trainees.

The concept of certification in the United States has changed radically in the last ten years and has been moving rapidly away from certification of the individual by the state to a process which is called the approved-program approach. Under this approach, the state department of education in cooperation with professional organizations evaluates the teacher training program of a teacher preparation institution. It determines whether or not a license will automatically be granted to a graduate of that program. Such a program generally has from three to five year approval. Superimposed is a reciprocal arrangement among the states on an individual or regional basis. Forty states now have some kind of approved-program approach.

Placement is a problem in the identification of future teachers. Too many potential teachers are lost because of poor placement at the college level. Often colleges fail to build upon what has been begun in the secondary school.

Many liberal arts colleges do not have schools of education and have no intention of instituting them. Graduates from these schools should not automatically be precluded from having an entrance into the profession. Frequently such colleges have specific arrangements with institutions having schools of education. There are also institutions which, not having well qualified methods teachers, engage local high school staff members to teach the methods course.

There is no trend toward national certification. There is a trend in accreditation of higher education which swings back and forth between regional and national dominance. This is related to the National Commission on Accreditation of Teacher Education and the regional associations. A handbook is published for use by the states indicating approved programs.

It has been said that the MLA is trying to impose national certification of foreign language teachers by providing the Proficiency Tests. It should be cautiously pointed out that the MLA does not set cut-off scores. The MLA developed neither the Qualification Statement nor the Proficiency Tests. There is some general opposition to the whole question of legislation of curriculum. Pennsylvania, for example, has experienced difficulties since it began requiring results of the Proficiency Tests for certification. It is not because of the requirement itself, but because this was imposed in addition to an already approved teacher training program. If, on the other hand, in the process of approving the program, one of the aspects is the administration of some proficiency test, that is quite a different matter.

It must be considered that the guidelines do not prescribe hours, they do not prescribe courses, they do not prescribe course sequences, and they do not state the number of years involved to offer and achieve the required competency. They do describe the nature of the educational process that is likely to produce the kind of teachers needed in the profession.

Is the profession prepared to conceive of new ways to achieve these objectives within these broad guidelines? Is it prepared to accept proficiency, however acquired? Are colleges willing to accept high school teachers as real partners in the teacher-training process? Would a college or university allow a team of the profession to come and evaluate its program on the basis of the guidelines?

These questions and many others must be answered if the professional corps of teachers needed for the next decade or two is to be developed.

Answers to Participants' Questions: Teacher Preparation and Certification

1. How long should a modern foreign language teacher be allowed to teach with temporary certification?

It is recognized that there exists a need for temporarily certificated modern foreign language teachers. However, holders of such a certificate should begin a program to complete full requirements as early as possible, certainly within the first two years. A uniform answer is impossible due to varying state legislative restrictions.

2. How can a state department of education control or implement adequate competency to teach a foreign language?

A state department of education can accomplish this by:
  a. keeping in close contact with the teacher preparation institutions
  b. establishing and maintaining in-service workshops
  c. withholding certification until the teacher is fully competent

3. What should be the essential courses for certification of teachers of modern foreign languages?

In line with the MLA Guidelines for training of modern foreign language teachers, areas of preparation should include:
  a. subject area courses
  b. methods courses
  c. linguistics
  d. psycholinguistics
  e. psychology of learning
  f. cultural anthropology

4. Should a modern foreign language teacher trainee have to take "education" courses?

It is agreed that a foreign language teacher trainee should take "education" or "core" courses. These courses should certainly include the history and philosophy of American education, subject area teaching methodology, and student teaching.

ERIC

5. How can native speakers who are certified teachers in their own country best get certification to teach in the U.S.?

Native speakers must show:

a. proficiency in English
b. understanding of American education and pupils
c. competency in the seven areas of the language to be taught.

6. Would you favor standardized certification requirements on a state-wide basis? On a national basis?

a. Standardized certification on a state-wide basis, yes.
b. Standardized certification on a national basis, no.

7. Are there any standard minimal requirements for certification in Fl teaching?

The MLA test as a grade should not be used; but competency should be at least "good", preferably "superior." The better prepared a teacher is, the better the teacher.

8. Who should judge what the minimum requirements for FL certification should be?

The state-drawing upon advice from the colleges, universities, and other teacher training institutions.

Summary of Committee Activities: Professional Organizations

Prior to Mr. Paquette's visit, the committee prepared a folder for each participant with information relevant to the lecture topics. The following materials regarding professional organization were included:

1. Reprint from Modern Language Journal, March, 1967. "Prospects for a Unified Profession" by Kenneth Mildenberger.
2. Reprint of Foreign Language Annals, April, 1967. This issue contains several articles about ACTFL and a membership application form.
3. Information sheet on Modern Language Journal.
4. List of professional organizations for FL teachers. (The list is included in our report.)

The committee presented a panel discussion in order to prepare the participants for Mr. Paquette's visit. Part of the panel presentation centered on ACTFL. It was indicated that the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages will seek to become a unifying focus for efforts to advance the teaching of all foreign languages at all levels. Co-founded by the Modern Language Association and the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, ACTFL becomes operative in September, 1967.

The first meeting is planned for Chicago, Illinois, in December, 1967. Membership in ACTFL is open to any individual engaged in or interested in the teaching of foreign languages. Dues are $4.00 annually and include subscription to the association's journal and newsletter.

Summary of Paquette Presentation: Professional Organizations (ACTFL)

After discussing the history of the various national and regional foreign language organizations and the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association, Mr. Paquette outlines the background leading to the establishment of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL).

During the staff retreat of the MLA Foreign Language Program in the fall of 1965, it became clear that all of the activities of the Foreign Language Program had been directed almost exclusively by the MLA itself. One of the major questions was "How does one bring to some kind of synthesis and unified driving force the great many people and the great deal of professionalism which had developed since the founding of the FL Program in 1952?" It was thought that the continuation of the FL program needed to have the professional support and be under the control of the entire profession. It had to reflect somehow the voice of the profession.

A basic notion regarding ACTFL was therefore proposed to the FL Program Advisory Committee, which subsequently sent two recommendations to the MLA Executive Council. In October of 1966 the MLA Executive Council decided to found ACTFL. Since this organization should be responsive to all who make up the foreign language teaching profession, it was decided that the MLA should not predetermine policy for this association and a Committee on the Organization of ACTFL was established.

This committee said immediately that the MLA should not found ACTFL without inviting the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations to become a cofounder. This invitation had two basic aspects: make the journal of the Federation (The Modern Language Journal) the official organ of ACTFL and have the Federation go out of existence as an organization. The Federation subsequently proposed that they take the guidelines for the establishing of ACTFL, amend the constitution of the Federation, and themselves become ACTFL. Negotiations to date between the MLA and the Federation have not led to a solution on the implementation of the differing recommendations. Therefore, Foreign Language Annals will appear beginning in October, 1967, as the official journal of

ACTFL. In effect, the MLA is moving ahead with the establishment of ACTFL but continues to negotiate with the Federation. It has been made clear to the Federation that, even though the MLA has had to go ahead to satisfy membership requirements, it is hoped that the Federation and the journals will merge into a single union.

ACTFL will have an Executive Committee, a Board of Directors, and an Advisory Assembly. The Advisory Assembly is made up of the delegates of regional and national affiliates (professional societies) of ACTFL. The Board of Directors is made up of individuals who do not represent societies but who are appointed by their state constituents. The delegates in the Assembly are supposed to represent the interests of their societies; the state, foreign language associations control and appoint the Board of Directors who, it is hoped, will act as foreign language teachers who are concerned with the teaching of foreign languages at all levels of instruction. The Executive Committee is composed of the officers and Executive Committee members elected by the membership and staff members who are non-voting, i.e. the Executive Secretary, the Editor, and the Treasurer. The Assembly is a forum for everyone involved in language teaching; the Board is the broad policy-making body; the Committee is the servant of the Board and manages the affairs of the association.

The first annual meeting will have general sessions by level and by language. There will be clinics for state supervisors, local supervisors, language lab directors, people interested in the problems of study abroad, etc. There will be some general meetings and a joint session with the FL Program of the MLA.

Although the establishing of ACTFL has been financed by the MLA, future financing will be derived from individual and affiliate dues, handbooks, publications, grants, and contracts.

Seven ACTFL committees are envisioned and some are already at work: Bibliography on Foreign Language Teaching, Study Abroad, Foreign Language in the Elementary School, Teaching of Literature and Culture, Research, Professional Preparation, Strengthening State Organizations.

Services to the membership will include a professional journal, a newsletter, a materials center, preparation of specialized materials, and a representative of the interests of foreign language teachers in Washington, D.C. It is hoped, most of all, that ACTFL is going to provide a real forum for foreign language organizations and a system of communication in the profession that has not existed up to this point.

Answers to Participant's Questions: Professional Organizations

1. How can we work the overbalance of heavy literary research out of the professional foreign language journals and make them more useful to the practicing teacher?

The reason for the large number of scholarly research articles in the FL journals is not any prejudice or lack of interest on the part of the editors in most cases. This is due to the lack of articles from high school teachers on methods and materials of interest to this very group. If we teachers would be willing to share our successful and practical ideas in FL pedagogy,the journals would be glad to publish these articles.

2. How can we encourage the high school teacher to be an unintimidated force in the professional FL organization?

Any organization is what the members want to make it. If the high school teachers want to remain Casper Milquetoasts, the university professors will continue to intimidate them. High school teachers should first of all join their respective FL organization and then be professional enough to work for their own goals.

3. To what professional organizations should FL teachers be especially urged to belong?

FL teachers should belong to their respective AATs, to ACTFL, to their state FL association, and should subscribe to the Modern Language Journal.

4. How can the meetings of FL professional organizations be made to reflect the wishes of the high school teachers and not just the university professors?

Programs should be planned to appeal to teachers in secondary schools, private schools, and college and university personnel. If the program does not appeal to members, they should make their wishes known to the officers.

5. How much should the school budget contribute to participation in FL organizations?

School systems should give FL teachers released time to attend professional meetings and should assist the teachers financially for expenses so incurred. It is the responsibility of the individual FL teacher to become a member of his FL organizations and to pay his own dues.

6. If local communities fail to properly support public education financially, should professional organizations pursue a course of action to remove controls of public education from the local level to state or federal levels?

In most states the cost of education falls upon the property owner. When local communities defeat a tax increase proposal or a bond issue for school purposes, they are not necessarily voting against public education but rather against the system of financing the public schools. It behooves the teaching profession to assist in the study of new methods of financing our educational system.

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

A. The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Association (NFMLTA). Publishes THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL (MLJ). Subscription: $4.00 yearly for 8 issues. Write to: Mr. Wallace G. Klein, Business Manager
THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL
13149 Cannes Drive
St. Louis, Missouri 63141

Listed below are the 11 constituent associations of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Association. Individuals may subscribe to the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL and belong to any of the constituent associations, but may not as individuals join the NFMLTA.

1. American Association of Teachers of French (AATF). Annual dues: $6.00. Members receive the FRENCH REVIEW (6 issues). Dr. J. Henry Owens, Secretary-Treasurer, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197.

2. American Association of Teachers of German (AATG). Dues: $8.00. Publishes THE GERMAN QUARTERLY. Mr. Adolph Wegener, Business Manager, Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pennsylvania 18104.

3. American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI). Dues: $5.00. Members receive ITALICA (quarterly). Dr. Joseph Laggini, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903.

4. American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP). Dues: $5.00. Members receive HISPANIA (8 issues). Professor Eugene Saviano, Secretary-Treasurer, Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas 67208.

5. American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL). Dues: $10.00. Publishes quarterly SLAVIC AND EAST EUROPEAN JOURNAL. Dr. Irwin Weil, Secretary, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois 60201

6. Central States Modern Language Teachers Association. (Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, West Virginia, Wisconsin and Chicago Society of Romance Language Teachers). Dr. Edward Allen, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210.

7. Middle States Association of Modern Language Teachers. Dr. Charles F. Jordan, Secretary-Treasurer, Loyola College, Baltimore, Maryland 21210.

8. New England Modern Language Association. Sister Regina Marie, Secretary-Treasurer, Regis College, Weston, Massachusetts 02193.

9. New Jersey Modern Language Teachers' Association. Geri Merz, Secretary, Delsea Regional High School, Franklinville, New Jersey 08322.

10. New York State Federation of Foreign Language Teachers. Mr. John DeVere Williamson, Secretary, Monroe Community College, Rochester, New York 14607.

11. Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association. Matilda Contreras, Secretary, Allegheny Junior College, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15235.

B. The Modern Language Association of American (MLA). Annual dues: $15.00. Members include teachers of English as well as those of foreign languages and receive 7 issues yearly of Publications of the Modern Language Association (PMLA) plus occasional papers. For membership at the national level write to: Membership Office, Modern Language Association, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011.

Affiliated with the Modern Language Association are the following regional organizations:

1. Midwest Modern Language Association. Dues: $7.00. Dr. Carl H. Klaus, Secretary-Treasurer, Assistant Professor of English, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240.

2. Philological Association of the Pacific States. Dr. R.S. Meyerstein, Secretary-Treasurer, Foreign Language Department, San Fernando Valley State College, Northridge, California 91324.

3. Rocky Mountain Modern Language Association. Dr. Clarice Short, President, Associate Professor of English, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84102.

4. South Atlantic Modern Language Association. Dr. Richard K. Seymour, Associate Professor of German, Department of Modern Languages, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina 27706.

5. South Central Modern Language Association. (Louisiana, Texas, Tennessee, Oklahoma, Arkansas, and Mississippi) Dues: $3.00. Members receive SOUTH CENTRAL BULLETIN (quarterly). For information write to: Dr. Andrew Louis, Department of Germanic Studies, Rice University, Houston, Texas 77001.

C. American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Annual dues: $4.00. The two parent organizations mentioned above (NFMLTA and MLA) with their many constituent organizations are proceeding with plans as co-founders to establish ACTFL effective September, 1967. Numerous groups at national, regional, and state levels also pursuing interests in the field of language learning are currently affiliating or merging with the new Council which will thereby become the largest unified organization serving the profession. FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANNALS is being expanded into a printed journal and is now the official quarterly publication of ACTFL. Information generated by the Educational Research Information Clearinghouse (ERIC) and by the Clearinghouse at the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C., will appear in the publication. Present subscriptions to the Modern Language Journal will be honored and individual subscribers will receive appropriate membership credit. Mail annual dues to: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011.

D. National Education Association (NEA). Dues: $10.00. Members receive NEA JOURNAL (9 issues) and participate in Annual Meetings. Contact: National Education Association, 1201 - 16th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Department of Audio-Visual Instruction (another subdivision of the NEA). Membership in this Department is $10.00 yearly. Persons desiring to receive the publication of the Department only (AUDIO-VISUAL INSTRUCTION) may subscribe for $6.00 (10 issues). Contact: Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, 1201 - 16th Street N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

Department of Foreign Languages (a sub-division of the National Education Association) publishes the DFL BULLETIN (4 issues yearly) and DFL NEWS AND NOTES. Membership in the NEA is a prerequisite to joining the Department of Foreign Languages. Dues for DFL: $5.00. Write to: Department of Foreign Languages, National Education Association, 1201 - 16th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

E. The United States Office of Education (USOE). Exists within the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW). There are a number of divisions in the USOE which provide information and publications of interest to language teachers. The publications are usually obtained through the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Teachers desiring information on NDEA Institutes being planned may request a list of these institutes from The Division of Educational Personnel Training, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.

Information concerning NDEA Fellowships and Loans may be obtained from individual colleges and universities which actually administer the granting of these fellowships and loans. Descriptions of the various NDEA programs are available from the U.S. Government Printing Office in Washington, D.C.

F. American Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language (AATESL). Write to: Miss Sirarpi Ohannessian, Secretary, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

G. Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Dues: $6.00. Members receive TESOL NEWSLETTER and attend Annual Meetings. Contact: Dr. James E. Alatis, Executive-Secretary, Institute of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20007.

H. National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE). $7.00 per year includes subscription to THE ENGLISH JOURNAL (9 issues). Contact: National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

Note: The three organizations for teachers of English mentioned just above will affiliate or merge with the newly formed American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages effective September, 1967.

I. American Classical League (ACL). Dues: $2.00. Membership includes subscription to THE CLASSICAL OUTLOOK (9 issues yearly). Contact: Dr. Henry C. Montgomery, Business Manager, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio 45056.

J. National Association of Language Laboratory Directors (NALLD). Serves high school and college levels with concentration on projects having immediate effect at state level. For information write to: Sister M. Timona, Executive-Secretary, Mount Mary College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53222.

K. Center for Applied Linguistics. Not open to individual membership but serves as clearinghouse and coordinating body in the application of linguistic science to practical language problems. The Center publishes THE LINGUISTIC REPORTER (6 issues yearly) for $1.50. Write to: Center for Applied Linguistics, Subscription Secretary, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

L. Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Sponsors Annual Meetings during the third week-end in April where Reports of the Working Committees are presented and made available to participants. Copies of these annual reports may be purchased on individual basis. For information: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 69 West 9th Street, New York, New York.

M. Southern Conference on Language Teaching. Sponsors Annual Meetings to improve language instruction. For information: Mr. Herman F. Bostick, Secretary, 201 Ashby Street N.W., Atlanta, Georgia 30314.

N. Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers. Meets every November in El Paso, Texas. Proceedings are published and may be purchased. Occasional newsletters are issued. Contact: Mrs. Marie Esman Barker, El Paso Public Schools, P.O.Box 1710, El Paso.

O. Pacific Northwest Conference of Foreign Language Teachers. Write to: Dr. Ernest S. Falbo, Department of Modern Languages, Gonzaga University, Spokane, Washington 99202.

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